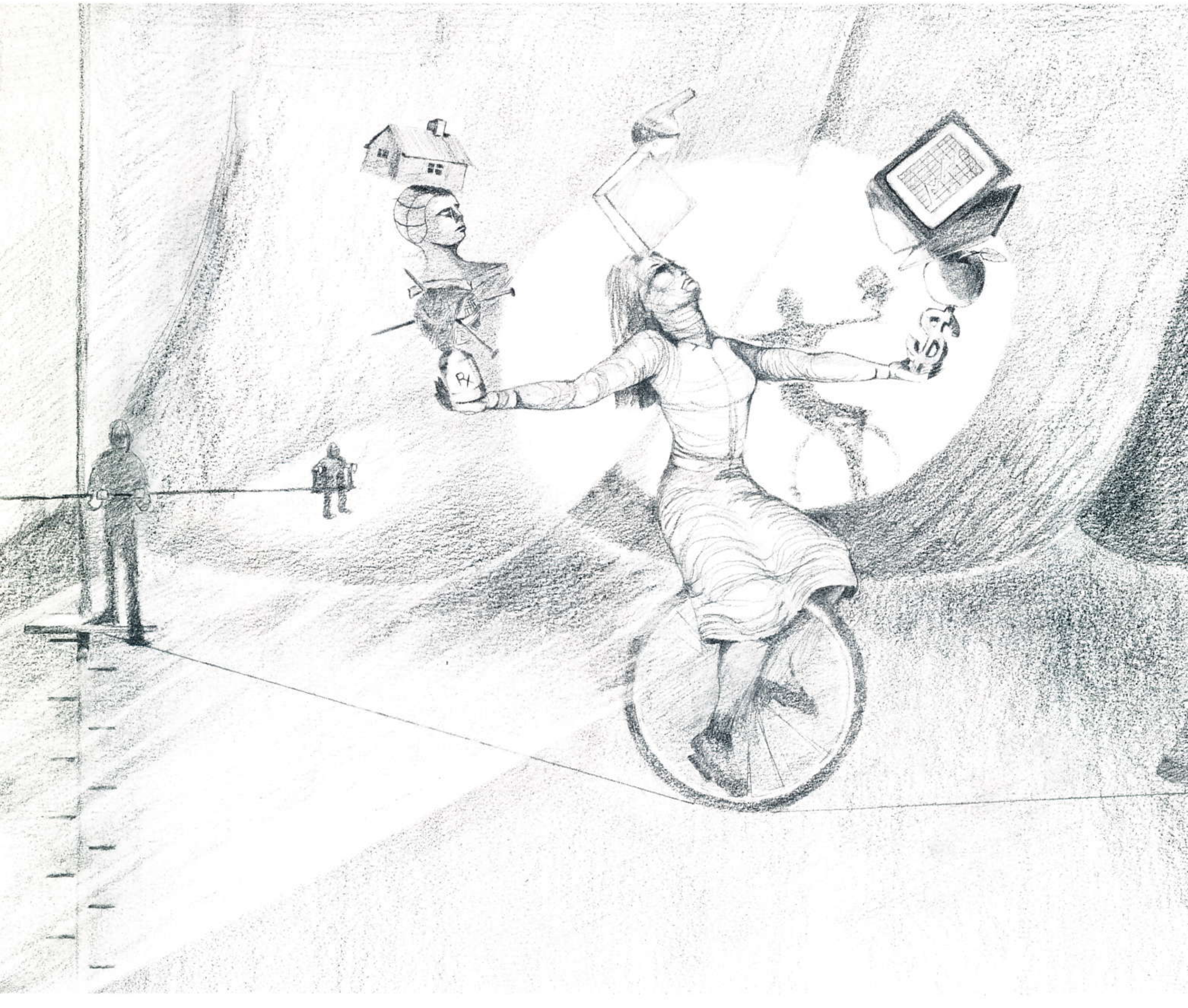
Canadian Home Economics Journal

Spring 1992. Volume 42, No. 2

Revue canadienne d'économie familiale

Printemps 1992. Volume 42, n° 2



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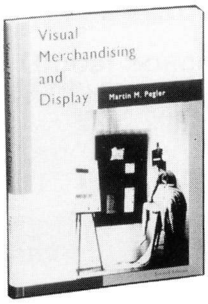

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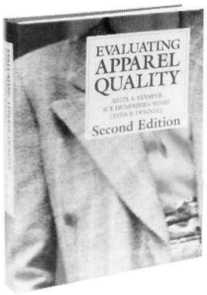

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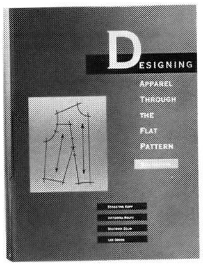

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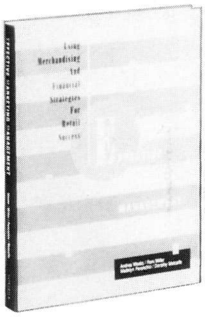

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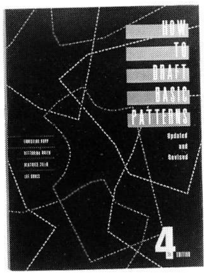

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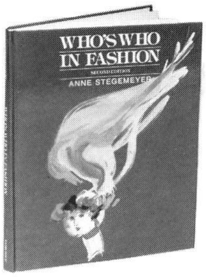

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Canadian
Home Economics
Journal

Revue
canadienne
d'économie familiale

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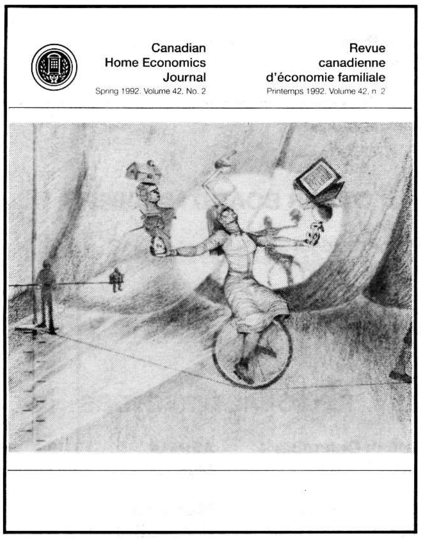

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Cover design: Dennis Goshinmon

The cover depicts home economists who lead in their support of the family and who are increasingly faced with juggling a variety of social and economic elements in a changing world.

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The Association: The Canadian Home Economics Association is the national professional organization for those educated and/or working in the field of consumer and family studies, foods and nutrition, home economics, and human ecology. The mission of the association is to strengthen the home economics profession and to actively promote improved quality of life for individuals and families in Canada and the developing world.

Subscriptions, membership fees and change of address should be mailed to the CHEA National Office, 901-151 Slater St., Ottawa K1P5H3, Canada.

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L'Association d'Economie familiale est un organisme professionnel national regroupant les personnes diplômées en études de la famille, en consommation, en alimentation, en nutrition, en économie familiale ou en écologie humaine. Le but de l'Association est de promouvoir la profession et d'assurer une plus grande qualité de vie aux personnes et aux familles au Canada et dans le monde en voie de développement.

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Membership Means Power"

You owe it to your professional self to be a member of CHEA and to encourage other home economists to be members.

Write to the National Office, 901-151 Slater Street, Ottawa ON, K1P 5H3, for information today or better yet, phone (613) 238-8819.

Reader Forum

A distant reader comments . . .

December 6, 1991

Dear Editor:

This is an excellent opportunity to tell you how useful I find the CHE Journal in my professional life. I reach BA Home Economics, Consumer Studies students and use the articles in the journal often.

Thank you and keep up the good work.

Yours sincerely,
Margaret Jepson
The Liverpool Polytechnic
School of Education and
Community Studies
Liverpool, England

Plain Language for Consumers

December, 1991

Dear Editors:

Being a consumer today means much more than just shopping. Consumers make choices in such complex areas as mortgages, investments, pensions, real estate purchases, extended warranties, home renovations, credit terms, bank accounts, electronic funds transfers, and telemarketing. Once we make a choice, we need to understand our rights and obligations as laid out in the contracts we sign. One of the ways to keep the marketplace fair is to ensure that consumer information is easy to understand. Alberta Consumer and Corporate Affairs is working with business and consumer groups to promote the use of plain language in consumer contracts.

Who is working on plain language projects?

Last Fall, Alberta Consumer and Corporate Affairs Minister Dennis Anderson released details of an Alberta Government plain language program. The government-wide plan will reduce the difficulties Albertans have when dealing with government forms, correspondence, instructional and informational literature, policy papers, legislation, and regulations. Dennis Anderson stated that "This user-friendly plain language program will benefit all Albertans".

While there are plain language initiatives already underway in some departments, the Minister announced details of the Cabinet approved program as well as a timetable for overall implementation. "We expect to see results quickly" says the Minister, "and ensure that understandable language is used throughout government".

A plain language booklet has been developed to introduce the program. It will be sent to all departments and agencies of the provincial government. Plain language workshops will be offered to all those who communicate with the public.

This government initiative will not create another level of bureaucracy. A small committee of deputy ministers will be responsible for the coordination of this program. The Deputy Minister of Consumer and Corporate Affairs will chair this committee. The departments of the Attorney General, Personnel Administration, and Public Affairs Bureau will also participate on the committee.

Each year the Minister will report to Cabinet on plain language initiatives. Part of the coordinating committee's mandate will be to assure there is a continuing commitment to the program.

Earlier in 1990, Alberta's Financial Consumers Act was proclaimed into law. The Act was the first of its kind in the Commonwealth to be written in plain language and to require plain language contracts for financial transactions. In March, 1991, Mr. Anderson challenged business and all levels of government in Canada to follow Alberta's lead to plain language. Mr. Anderson believes this is not just a provincial issue, but one that needs to be addressed right across the country.

Alberta Consumer and Corporate Affairs (ACCA) has set up an inventory of plain-language projects now under way across the province, and acts as a clearing-house for those wanting to share their experiences. It also worked with the Alberta branch of the Consumers Association of Canada to produce a plain language home renovation contract. Together, the Alberta Real Estate Association and ACCA are rewriting real estate documents in plain language. The Edmonton Landlord and Tenant Board will be working with Department staff to prepare a plain residents' lease.

What is the consumer's part?

If you would like information on writing in Plain Language or if you have had problems with complex consumer contracts, please contact Diane Macgregor in Edmonton, at (403) 427-6941.

Sincerely,
Diane Macgregor
Alberta

CHEA Scholarship Fund

January, 1992

Dear Editor,

The membership of the Canadian Home Economics Association have always been committed to encouraging graduates in home economics to pursue further study. Two very tangible examples of this are the Silver Jubilee Scholarship and the Fiftieth Anniversary Scholarship. Both of these are awarded to successful candidates who are graduates in home economics, and who are undertaking graduate study at the Masters and/or PhD level. The recipient of each scholarship is awarded $4000.00.

The future of home economics study at our universities depends in part to quality graduate programs. These programs are equally important to the future of the profession, ensuring that it remains progressive. Support for students entering these programs must also be continued.

It is important that no matter what changes occur in the economic health of Canada, the scholarship funds should continue to provide adequate and helpful support to qualifying graduates. This will happen if we as home economists and members of CHEA continue our contributions to the scholarship funds. Any amount of money is welcomed as are bequeaths from estates. These donations are income tax deductible.

Members and friends, please support this very important continuing project of the Canadian Home Economics Association. Cheques may be sent to the CHEA head office in Ottawa and made payable to the CHEA Scholarship Fund.

Arlene McKay, PHEc
Alberta

The bilingual issue....

January 27, 1992

Dear Editors,

In reference to the printing of the CHEA annual report and insert: should the bilingual printing be continued or should we consider the printing (of most copies) in English only?

My opinion is that we should definitely continue the bilingual printing of the annual report and insert for the following reasons:

The printing in both official languages (French and English) produces a more professional Canadian document than if it were printed in one language (English) only. I have a high image of home economics as a professional career and of home economists as professionals. We are among the most diversified and competent professionals in the entire field of family living. We owe it to ourselves to maintain a high professional profile at every level.

Home economics is provincial, national and international. Therefore, we should think in these terms when printing our annual report and insert. I feel we can (and should) be proud of our national organization and bilingual printing gives us the distinction which we deserve.

We also need to keep in mind that many of our valuable Canadian professionals either require the French printing or prefer to read French. I personally, prefer to read the annual report (and many other documents) in French. In strained political times such as we are now experiencing, let us be aware of the value of the two official languages in creating unity and let us enhance our own role/image to this end.

In response to Shirley Rebus' concerns about the environment, I also feel strongly that we should act responsibly in the appropriate management of our natural resources. However, there are other (and better) ways to save trees than to deprive ourselves of a bilingual annual report and insert. The same applies to the labor aspect.

One point on which I do agree with Shirley is that it should be printed on recycled paper. That would not only be sound management but could also enhance our professional image.

Sincerely,
Thérèse Beaudoin, PHEc
Alberta

Error correction

In the reference list for *Rural Alberta Home-Based Businesses: A Profile of Workshop Participants* (Winter 1992, p. 22-28), the 6th reference should read Fetterman, E. *not N.* The editors apologize for the error.

from the Editors

Thank you for responding to our Readership Survey this past fall. We received over 260 responses from members and subscription holders. That represents almost a 100% increases in responses from last year. (It does help to include a return address!) We also noted that a number of the respondents are new readers and we welcome you!

An overwhelming majority of the respondents are satisfied with the current content of the Journal – almost 75% indicated that the level of technicality was "just right". Comments also indicated that they liked the variety of topics addressed in the Journal in recent years.

Respondents indicated that they read most of the sections of the Journal:

Section	Most of the time	Sometimes
General interest articles	70%	27%
Research section	35%	56%
Book reviews	45%	45%
Abstracts of current literature	52%	37%
New developments	68%	27%
On the job profiles	55%	38%
What do you say when...?	44%	35%

This is not to say that improvements cannot be made! A number of respondents indicated that they would like to see an even broader scope of topics addressed, particularly for home economists who hold positions that are not normally identified as traditional "home ec" jobs, for teachers, and for retired home economists.

The task now is to figure out HOW we meet these needs. We are only here to edit the Journal, not write the articles. Very few people indicated that they would be willing to contribute to the Journal. Can you help us? If you know someone who you think could contribute to the Journal (especially General Interest and Research articles), please encourage them to submit an article to us. Personal encouragement is much more effective than you think! (Currently we do not need assistance with Abstracts of Current Literature and New Developments.)

To assist you with identifying appropriate topics, we are including a complete list of the ideas identified by the respondents of the Readership Survey:

What topics would you like to see incorporated in the CHEJ?

More clothing and textiles
Update textiles
Career opportunities
Career choices after retirement
More research articles
Update reports on individual professionals to keep home economics from becoming an out-dated dinosaur. Area of interest.
Men in family studies
More topics for teachers with those involved in education at all levels

des Éditeurs

Merci d'avoir répondu à notre enquête auprès de nos lecteurs de l'automne 1991. Nous avons reçu plus de 260 réponses de nos membres et des abonnés à la revue. Ceci représente presque une augmentation de 100% de réponse sur l'an dernier (indiquer une addresse facilite le retour). Nous avons aussi noté qu'un certain nombre de répondants étaient de nouveaux lecteurs et nous leur souhaitons la bienvenue à participer et partager avec nous tous.

Une grande majorité de répondants sont satisfaits du contenu de la revue. Près de 75% nous ont indiqués que le niveau de techniqué était "à point". Les commentaires nous ont aussi indiqués que la variété de sujets publiés, les années antérieures, étaient grandement appréciés.

Les répondants nous ont indiqués qu'ils lisent la majorité des articles de la revue.

Section	Le plus souvent	Quelquefois
Articles d'intérêt général	70%	27%
Chronique des recherches	35%	56%
Chronique des livres	45%	45%
Résumés d'éditions récentes	52%	37%
Nouveaux produits, services, tendances....	68%	27%
Profils de carrières	55%	38%
Qu'en dites-vous lorsque ?	44%	35%

Ceci ne signifie pas qu'il n'y a pas de place pour des améliorations. Certains répondants nous ont signalés qu'ils aimeraient voir un plus grand éventail de sujets particulièrement, pour les spécialistes oeuvrant dans des postes non traditionnels en économie familiale, pour les enseignants et les spécialistes retraités de l'économie familiale.

La tâche actuelle est de déterminer COMMENT nous répondrons à ces attentes. Nous sommes ici seulement pour publier la revue, non pour écrire des articles. Très peu de lecteurs nous ont indiqués qu'ils seraient prêts à collaborer à la rédaction de leur revue. Vous pouvez nous aider et par ricochet aider tous les lecteurs. Si vous connaissez quelqu'un qui pourrait contribuer à la revue, principalement pour la CHRONIQUE D'INTÉRÊT GÉNÉRAL et la CHRONIQUE DE RECHERCHES, suggérez-lui de nous soumettre un article. L'encouragement personnel est beaucoup plus efficace que l'on peut en penser. (Dans l'immédiat nous avons suffisamment de textes sur les RÉSUMÉS, EDITIONS, RÉCENTES, NOUVEAUTÉS.)

Pour vous aider à connaitre les sujets à développer, nous vous décrivons la liste des sujets que les lecteurs nous ont indiqués, qu'ils aimeraient voir traiter dans la revue, par leurs réponses à notre enquête de l'automne 1991;

Plus d'articles sur les vêtements et les textiles
Textiles récents
Opportunités de carrières
Choix de carrière à la retraite
Plus d'articles sur la recherche
Les démarches entreprises par des professionnels en économie familiale pour éviter l'extinction de certains champs d'intérêt dans notre profession.

Ideas for economics in the family course in Ontario – secondary level
Ideas for high school teachers
Marketing Techniques
Success stories
Food services (handling, managing of food, safety, inspections)
How Industries or groups promote home economics ie: Universities to get new students
Health tips for seniors
Investment for seniors
Recommended senior homes
Housing community development
Preventive health care
Women's health care
More on seniors
Adult education
Critical thinking
Self awareness
Impact of culture on health
Breast feeding update
Articles on teaching
Life skills/home economics to the handicapped
Meal planning for people on low incomes
Articles on microwaves
Articles on single parent families
Coping with a "problem" boss
Effective communication in the corporation
Changing management concept of part-time work
Alternate work styles
Various roles for the family studies graduate
Lobbying for change
New developments
More overseas home economics activities
Update nutrition topics
More food related and business related in consumer language (new development & trends
Continue with the facets of home economics plus topics related to being a professional
Updates re: home economics university
Activities
Job advertising
Computer articles
Other fields that are opening up to home economics such as marketing
Career guidance to current and/or recent graduates – possibly set up a network for graduates to have someone to talk to about their particular field ie consumer affairs
Textbook evaluations
Listing of publications available from public services
Issues in cross cultural education and & home economics (nutrition)
More debates on controversial issues, more indepth on these issues
Global/development education
International development issues
Home economics & advocacy
Program implementation/training practices & theories
References in food & nutrition field complete with addresses, cost, etc.
Families & Multiculturalism
Federal Governments Green Plan
Risk/benefit assessment re: Health hazards in the environment
Great Lakes Health Effects Program

Les hommes en économie familile
Plus de sujets pour les enseignants qui sont impliqués dans l'éducation à tous les niveaux
Des idées pour les cours d'économie familiale, au niveau secondaire, en Ontario
Des idées pour les enseignants de "High School"
Technique de mise en marché
Histoires de réussites, (humaines & matérielles, etc.)
Services alimentaires (manutention, administration, inspec tion)
Comment les industries ou les groupes font pour favoriser L'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE, ex: les universités pour attirer les étudiants
Sujets de santé pour les personnes agées
Investissement pour les personnes agées
Résidences recommandées pour les personnes agées
Développement de résidences communautaires
Soins préventifs de santé
Plus sur les personnes agées
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Styles alternatifs de travail
Différents roles pour les gradués en études familiales
Démarches (lobbying) pour changements
Nouveautés
Plus d'information sur les activités outre-frontières
Mise à jour des sujets sur la nutrition
Alimentation et commerce dans le langage du consommateur (nouveautés et tendances)
Continuer avec les aspects de l'économie familiale et en ajoutant plus de sujets se référant au professionalisme
Mise à jour de l'économie familiale à l'université
Activités
Annonces d'emplois
Articles sur l'informatique
Autres champs d'action qui ont des opportunités en économie familiale tel que mis en marché, etc....
Guide de carrière pour les gradués, possiblement organiser un reseau pour ceux-ci afin qu'ils puissent discuter avec d'autres de leur champs d'action particulier, ex: affaires des consommateurs
Evaluation des manuels d'enseignement et de formation
Liste des publications provenant des services publics
Sujets traitant de l'éducation "Cross Cultural" & l'économie familiale, ex; nutrition, famille, etc.
Plus d'exposés sur les sujets controversés, plus d'approfondissement sur ces sujets
Développement global en éducation
Sujets sur le développement international
L'économie familiale et la profession
Implantation de programmes, pratiques de formation & théories
Références complètes en alimentation & nutrition avec adresses, coûts, etc.

New nutrition research
More articles about current research
Home economics dealing with issues of poverty
Family dynamics surveys – Day care use
Issues on an aging society
Evolving consumer trends
Consumerism
Environmental issues
Professionalism
New food products
Family current issues
Money management research
International development
Changing fields, diversity of jobs/careers
High School course offerings in other parts of Canada
More family relationships and need to teach "life" skills
More comprehensive approach
More trends
Topics from all five areas shown on Fall 1991 issue
How diet affects health and medical problems
Value added – marketing
Father's rights/Battered men
Canadian laws on: Abortion
More consumer education information
Topics on Gerontology
Listing of Employment Opportunities
More information on continuing education opportunities
More posting of meetings
Freelancing
Education
Home economics and teaching
Cross – cultural prospectives on family issues
More general articles
Day care
Teen Pregnancy
Harassment
Child development
Foster care
Nutrition
More current textile developments
A Family Finance Section
More articles about home economists in business
Computer usage
4th year and Masters level research published more
Upcoming events, courses, workshops etc.
Anything relative to an aging population
Consumer education information
Business Management
More clothing and textiles
Community development
Educational issues (other than post-secondary)
Provincial notes
Job networking
Forecasting and profiling future home economist's positions
Food quality
Beef consumption/production
Family topics (International Year of the Family)
International Focus/Interests
Professionalism
Philosophy/Name/Focus of the profession
Environment/Recycling/Waste Management
Status of Home Economics in Canada
CHEA in action
Constitutional proposals & effect on women

Familles et multicultarisme
Plan vert des gouvernements provinciaux et fédéral
Evaluation des risques/bénifices re; risque de santé en environnement
Programme sur les effets de la santé des Grands Lacs
Nouvelles recherches en nutrition
Plus d'articles sur les recherches en cours
L'économie familiale et ses rapports avec la pauvreté
Enquêtes dynamiques sur la famille/l'utilisation des soins en clinique de jour (day care)
Sujets sur la société vieillissante
Evolution des tendances des consommateurs
Consommation
Sujets sur l'environnement
Professionalisme
Nouveaux produits alimentaires
Sujets sur la famille actuelle
Recherche en gestion financière
Développement international
Changement des champs d'action, diversité des emplois et des carrières
Répertoires des facilités en économie familiale à travers le pays
Cours offerts par les "High School' à travers le Canada
Les relations familiales et les besoins d'enseigner les habilités de vie
Plus d'approches compréhensives
Plus de tendances
Sujets sur les cinq champs d'action démontrés dans l'édition d'automne 1991 de la revue
Comment la diète affecte la santé et les problèmes médicaux
Valeur ajoutée/mise en marché
Droit de pères/hommes battus
Les lois Canadiennes sur l'avortement
Plus d'information sur l'éducation aux consommateurs
Sujets sur la gérontologie
Liste des opportunités d'emploi
Plus d'information sur les opportunités en éducation permanente
Plus d'information sur les réunions
Pigiste ou contractuel en économie familiale
Education
Léconomie familiale et l'enseignement
Sujets sur les perspectives multiculturelles (Cross Cultural) de la famille
Plus d'articles d'informations générales
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Grossesse des adolescentes
Harcèlement
Développement de l'enfant
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Variété continue
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Information sur l'éducation du/aux consommateurs

Options for graduate studies
Microfibres
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Glenda Everett
MaryAnn Joly

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Développement communautaire
Débouchés en éducation (autre que post-secondaire)
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Philosophie, nom et point de vue de la profession
L'environnement, recyclage et gestion des déchets
Statut de l'économie familiale au Canada
Action de L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE
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Microfibres
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Redesigning Menstrual Education Programs Using Attitudes Toward Menstruation

Dianne K. Kieren

Abstract

Researchers interested in the developmental experiences of young women have focussed recently on adolescent attitudes toward menstruation. Prior to 1975, little was known about young women's attitudes and experiences concerning menarche or the relationship of these attitudes to such things as dysmenorrhea, premenstrual syndrome, adult attitudes, and symptomatology. Much of this information was obtained retrospectively from adult women. Large sample studies of young women experiencing these phenomena have been limited by the unavailability of easy-to-administer, age-relevant instruments to measure menstrual attitudes. Knowledge about pre- and postmenarcheal girls' attitudes and experiences would appear to be the key components necessary for designing effective, individually relevant menstrual educational programs. The present paper critiques current menstrual education efforts and reviews current data about the nature of adolescent girls' attitudes toward menstruation as the basis for redesigning comprehensive, effective menstrual education programs. These data are utilized to make suggestions to refine current education efforts.

Résumé

Les chercheurs intéressés dans les expériences de dévelopement des jeunes femmes ont récemment concentrés leurs études sur la menstruation des adolescentes. Avant 1975, ont avait peut de connaissances sur les attitudes et les expériences des jeunes femmes face à leur première menstruation ou la relation de leurs attitudes au sujet de la dysménorrhée, le syndrome pré-menstruel, les attitudes des adultes et la symtomatologie. La majorité des informations ont été obtenues de femmes adultes. Les études sur un grand échantillonage de jeunes femmes vivant ces phénomènes ont été limitées par l'indisponibilité d'administrer facilement des tests pour mesurer les attitudes menstruelles selon l'âge. La connaissance des attitudes et des expériences des jeunes filles sur leur première menstruation et les suivantes semblent être les informations nécessaires pour pouvoir structurer, efficacement et individuellement, des programmes d'éducation sur la menstruation. Le présent article analyse les efforts courants en éducation menstruelle et en revise les données actuelles, sur la nature des attitudes des adolescentes envers leurs menstruations, comme base pour redéfinir de façon compréhensive et efficace des programmes d'éducation sur la menstruation. Ces données sont utilisées à titre de suggestions pour améliorer les efforts éducationnels sur la menstruation.

Menstrual education has changed slowly from the "dark ages" of no education to the "twilight" of growing openness and action on the part of parents, schools, and communities. Shainess (1961) reported that 50% of young women interviewed in the 1950s were not prepared for their first menstrual period. While percentages vary from study to study, the number of unprepared girls has dropped in recent years, ranging from 5-20% (Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1980; Research & Forecasts, Inc., 1981). Within the unprepared group early maturers are more likely than those fitting a regular or late pattern, to report that they had no preparation prior to first menarche (Koff, Rierdan, & Sheingold, 1982).

Whether or not a girl is prepared for menarche has not been the main concern which health and sexuality educators have raised about current menstrual education efforts. Another major issue is the adequacy of that preparation. Parents, community health professionals, teachers, and commercial resources constitute the primary formal educators, and while the involvement of all of these partners is viewed positively, the nature of the educational experience provided by these sources continues to be criticized, particularly because it is based on an incomplete understanding of a pre- and post-menarcheal girl's own experiences and needs. A growing body of research on menarche and female development presents a unique opportunity to revise menstrual education programs to prepare young women better for this developmental event and to help them integrate it into their developing identity.

Consequently, the objectives of this paper are 1) to critique the current state of menstrual education in North America, 2) to briefly review the cur-

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rent research information about the menstrual attitudes of pre- and post-menarcheal girls, 3) to note the key elements of a composite profile of pre- and post-menarcheal girls obtained from this research, and 4) to make suggestions for redesigning menstrual education programs based upon current understandings of young women's experience.

Menstrual Education in Review

Parental Involvement in Menstrual Education

Mothers are most commonly mentioned as the source of menstrual education for girls (Bloch, 1978, 1979; Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1979; Koff, Rierdan, & Jacobson, 1981; Whisnant & Zegans, 1975). Except from personal descriptions (see for example, Stubbs, 1982), little is known about the nature of the educational process or content of mother-daughter exchanges. While some mothers provide the feminine hygiene products with little explanation of the event or the process, others make the event an opportunity to discuss a whole range of issues related to growing up, relating to others (especially relating to boys), and sexuality.

The continued reports (Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1980; Research and Forecasts, 1981; Shainess, 1961) that some girls still do not receive any menstrual education at home prior to menarche, supply some evidence about the reluctance and unpreparedness of mothers and fathers to complete this task. There is no doubt that many parents are unprepared since they themselves may have never been exposed to a comprehensive program of sexuality education. But, even if they are personally prepared, they are still unsure about what should be offered as preparation. Consequently, many parents limit their education efforts to the provision of hygiene products and personal care information. Also, parents may see this preparation being handled in a single "Big Talk" rather than in a continued dialogue.

For example, Bloch (1978), found that over 20% of 124 mothers interviewed had never told their daughters about menstruation, while another 16% provided only the most basic information about the management of the event. Bloch reports that only one fourth of the group provided any information about the physiology of the event or its relation to pregnancy. These mothers reported that they felt very inadequate and knew they had not been able to provide what was necessary to prepare their daughters adequately. None claimed they were able to handle the psychological aspects of menstruation. Another study reported that mothers often fall short in providing information about new concerns, such as Toxic Shock Syndrome (Clark & Ruble, 1978).

The timing of the provision of information appears to be crucial in that preparation for the event has been shown to have a significant impact on a girl's reaction to it (Koff, Rierdan, & Sheingold, 1982; Ruble & Brooks-Gunn, 1982). Apparently, mothers in these studies were unable to assess maturational indicators of puberty, particularly if their daughters were early maturers. Consequently, it seems that early maturers are especially vulnerable to lack of preparation. Their reports of being unprepared have themes of fear of dying, shame, and concealment (Koff, Rierdan, & Sheingold, 1982).

It would appear that parental efforts in this area are hampered by reluctance to act, unpreparedness, and timing. This results in uneven involvement of parents and a limited discussion of relevant information about menarche and menstruation when it is most needed. Little is known about the specific process which mothers and daughers engage in to achieve the transmission of this important developmental information. However, parental involvement appears to be important as those women who report total unprepardness also report more negative than positive feelings (Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1980).

School and Community Efforts in Menstrual Education

Historically, menstrual education in schools and communities involved a single session for girls offered either as a part of the health, physical education, family life, sex education, or home economics curricula or as an evening meeting sponsored by school or parent groups for mothers and daughters. These sessions used a variety of leaders, including community health nurses, doctors, family life educators, teachers, and parents. The materials and teaching strategies most often included films, booklets, short lectures, and possibly some discussion or a question period. The timing of these single sessions were generally during fifth or sixth grades and were intended to provide basic information about menstruation before first menarche. Because menstrual education was often considered a part of sexuality education, its inclusion in the school curricula depended on community comfort with and acceptance of the topic. This meant that in many communities it was not offered as a matter of course.

The eighties brought a decided emphasis on the development of comprehensive health education programs, including sexuality as one component. In many states and provinces, however, the sexuality unit remained optional and depended on school and parental permission for implementation. For example, in Canadian provincial curricula (see for example, Alberta Education, 1986; Manitoba Education, 1988), menstrual education was most often incorporated in units on human growth and development, puberty, or sexuality. Usually, it was introduced in grade four. Although the curricula did not represent unique emphases from year to year, in most provinces, menstruation was discussed again in grades 5-9 (Manitoba Education Optional Health Unit, 1986). Typical objectives of school curricula included:

- becoming familiar with the changes that take place from childhood to adulthood,
- identifying the main events of menstrual cycle and its importance,
- learning that caring for the body involves practising good hygiene,
- describing body hygiene and personal products related to menstruation,
- understanding that the menstrual cycle is a natural, integral part of human reproduction and marks the onset of puberty in females, and
- understanding that there are emotional and physical changes which accompany puberty.

Suggested resources in these guides, included films, commercial booklets, books, and transparency materials. Learning activities focussed on lectures about anatomy, physiology and hygiene, viewing films, discussing positive health and hygiene practices, practising using language and terminology appropriate to one's developmental level, and developing positive health goals. The content outlines make little mention of the differential feelings and interpretation of this developmental event for female or male adolescents nor is there discussion of the key activities which link the experience of menarche to a growing and developing sense of identity as a sexual being. On the other hand, there are suggestions for teaching strategies which explore feelings about the more general changes that occur for boys and girls during puberty. In many cases, community health nurses were suggested as potential resource persons for this school health unit.

Public opinion and discomfort about sexuality continue to plague school efforts. This has resulted in the development of provincial and state policies which limit the discussion of sexual topics to an optional unit which requires school and parental permission for student participation. Under such a policy, even the reproductive system is often discussed within this optional unit rather than in a discussion that includes all body systems.

Some school systems encourage parental involvement in these programs through the formation of parental committees which preview materials and content and by sending letters to parents encouraging home discussion of topics discussed in class and homework activities. School curricula give no evidence, however, of providing any direction to parents for facilitating and improving parent-child communication about menstruation.

School programs have been criticized for their continued emphasis on formal classes, little opportunities for discussion, dependence on commercial materials and resources, and passive learning techniques (Dashiff, 1986; McNab, 1985; Whisnant & Zegans, 1975). While menstruation is currently being discussed more openly with both boys and girls, curricula are noticeably silent on the psychological responses to menarche and menstruation. In addition, there is no evidence that the growing body of information about young women's own pre- and post-menarcheal experiences have been used as a basis for developing learning objectives and activities.

Efforts by Commercial Companies

The history of menstrual education has strong roots in the efforts of commerical companies which sell sanitary hygiene products. Milow (1981), writing about the history of these efforts for Tampax Incorporated, noted that their first consumer education program in menstrual health was conducted around 1941. The aims of the program were twofold: to teach consumers how to use tampons, a product introduced by the company in 1936; and to counteract widespread public ignorance and avoidance of discussion of menstruation. The efforts of this company were complicated by three problems: inadequate information about attitudes and information levels about menstruation for different target groups; unavailability of a wide range of effective methods to reach those groups; and skeptical public views regarding the motives behind involvement of a commercial company in menstrual education.

Most of the commercial sanitary product companies have provided a staff of educational consultants to develop programs for students, to present workshops and inservice sessions for professionals, and to develop educational materials for parents, students, and teachers. Films have been the primary format, with booklets being the next most used technique. Until recently, these commercial efforts focussed primarily on a content outline which included two primary headings: 1) a discussion of anatomy and the physiology of menstruation, and 2) health and management habits related to menstruation (including exercise, posture, diet, hygiene, and selection of menstrual protection products). Today, greater attention is being given in these materials to life long development through menopause as well as new medical information which challenges the many longstanding myths and misconceptions about menstruation.

While the educational efforts of these companies have been longstanding, they have also been criticized with respect to the content and messages about menstruation which they contain. Whisnant, Brett, & Zegans (1975) provided an insightful analysis of the introductory material produced by three commercial companies for the premenarcheal girl aged 9 through 14. Their analysis focussed on four booklets, two films, two booklets designed for mothers of the girls, and a booklet for mothers of retarded girls. Each of the booklets contained three common sections. The first presented an explanation of the anatomy and physiology of menstruation. The second focussed on hygienic practices and the last described sanitary products. The stated purpose of the materials, while varying in explicit wording, had a vague and mysterious quality. The language implied that the booklet would provide an "exclusive, private dialogue" about an anticipated transformation from girl to woman.

Whisnant et al. (1975) evaluated the presentation of the anatomy and physiology of menstruation as a depersonalized, technical, and medically oriented description of "the journey of the egg". The girl is presented as a host rather than a person actively involved in a growth process. The focus on the movement of eggs ignored the important role of hormones in affecting a girl's emotional as well as physiological functioning.

Whisnant et al. (1975) note that even the diagrams of the internal organs were "disembodied". The organs were shown floating in the inner space and were not connected to the external genitalia. The omission of the placement of the vagina in diagrams was deemed particularly problematic since many girls even today are unaware of its location.

Even physical changes of puberty were described vaguely. Booklets referred to "feeling different", "needing a bra", and "changing from string bean to one with curves".The girl's outward appearance was the primary focus. Only one booklet and film mentioned pubic hair and little attention was given to increased sexual interest and arousal or the need to revise relationships with peers, parents, and siblings.

Menarche was given a magical, fairytale quality. It was referred to as "a debut," "commencement of a wonderful adventure", or "entering womanhood". Like myths about the toothfairy, a girl was expected to receive a reward. In this case, the reward was implied to be instant transformation to a mature woman upon arrival of her first period. This portrayal of the changes associated with puberty was likely to provide more confusion than clarity about the experience.

Recommendations in the materials reviewed instructed the girl to act as though nothing had happened. The guideline was: if you treat menstruation as natural and normal, you will not be upset or embarrassed. The implication of the message was that if a girl does experience unpleasantness or embarrassment, it really was her fault for not acting natural. Girls are encouraged to conceal menstruation by proper hygiene, extra attention to grooming and charm, and perfect posture. Negative reactions such as cramps or emotional responses were to be managed or controlled by such things as denial, mind over matter, and exercise. The materials were specific about the rules to manage menstruation, but only in the materials for retarded girls was any concrete description of the experience of menstruation provided. While the materials did not perpetuate the notion of menstruation as a disease, there was no attempt to acknowledge or validate negative attitudes and feelings.

Recognition of the unique needs of each girl was most evident in the section of the materials dealing with choosing the most appropriate sanitary products. Even here, however, the focus was on the qualities of the product, not the girl.

The booklets for mothers did little to foster open communication about sexuality or menstruation. Again, a focus on providing products was substituted for encouragement to discuss and foster a sharing of information about the experience. When mothers' and daughters' materials were contrasted, mothers were encouraged to communicate directly, but daughters were encouraged to deal with their own bodies independently. These are very contradictory messages.

Commercial companies do not claim that their educational products are complete or comprehensive educational tools. Unfortunately, they are often used this way. As supplementary materials they could complement a comprehensive school or parental program, but used alone, they provide an unrealistic and inaccurate description of menarcheal changes.

Whisnant et al. (1975) claim that they fail on these bases: 1) they dictate what a girl should feel rather than help her explore and validate her own feelings; 2) they are not supportive because they use vague and euphemistic language about the experience; 3) they suppress unpleasant body sensations and emphasize secretiveness; 4) they draw the emphasis away from a girl's body and her pubertal excitement and fears, to an emphasis on sanitary products and consumership; and 5) they make sanitary hygiene the focus of an adolescent's daily life. Instead of building self-esteem, the ritualistic menstrual management model presented in the materials could lead to shame and lack of confidence.

Commercial companies walk a tightrope in trying to act as educators within a commercial context. They are faced with a basic tension in providing accurate information without controversy. By their commercial framework they are primarily interested in selling a product. It is therefore not surprising that they strive to avoid controversy and unpleasantness. While their materials have limitations, they must be recognized for their contributions in opening up the topic for discussion and for providing information and leadership in an area within which schools and parents were unwilling to take the lead.

Relationship of Preparation to Attitudes and Behaviors

Research justifies continued attention to menstrual education programs in that it has demonstrated relationships between preparation for menarche and subsequent attitudes toward menstruation. Ruble & Brooks-Gunn (1982) noted that women who provided retrospective evidence about being totally unprepared for menarche, in contrast to those who reported being somewhat prepared, expressed more negative feelings, less positive feelings, and more surprise. They also perceived their mothers as having less positive feelings about the process and more negative responses and feelings to it. No differences were reported based on preparation in their reported and remembered symptoms with the first period.

Koff, Rierdan & Sheingold (1982) found in their analyses of women's retrospective data, that regardless of age, the more prepared a woman judged herself to have been, the more likely she was to remember her initial experience as positive. In this study, "more adequate preparation" was significantly related to positive initial experiences whereas "more accurate information" was not. Two important aspects of preparation identified in their work are: knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of menstruation and the mechanics of menstrual hygiene. The fact, however, that girls' knowledge of menstruation and menstrual hygiene only correlated .56 with their sense of being prepared for menstruation indicates that these elements are only a part of "adequate" preparation. Whisnant and Zegans (1975) have emphasized that the psychological impact and subjective responses to menarche are important additional aspects to be covered.

The source of information appears to have some impact on attitudes as well. When females, parents, or physicians are the source of information, women report feeling greater comfort in talking about menstruation and menstruation is more likely viewed as a positive event. In addition, learning less from parents has been related to more negative perceptions of menstruation (Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1982).

Much of the research done relating preparation for menstruation to attitudes to menstruation has been completed using women who are looking back at their experiences. Only recently have attempts been made to study preparation and menarcheal status of young women as indicators of menstrual attitudes. Research has been limited by the unavailability of instruments designed for young women which could be used in large sample studies.

Profiles of Pre- and Post-Menarcheal Girls

The attitude profiles of pre- and post-menarcheal girls to date have not revealed clear cut consistencies across studies in terms of differences. Some of this lack of consistency may be attributable to methodological imprecision such as the use of varying attitude instruments and small samples. A recently completed study (Morse, Kieren, Bottorff, & Donahue, 1989) responded to these limitations by developing and utilizing a valid and reliable instrument which was developed initially from items generated from qualitative analyses of pre- and post-menarcheal girls' experiences (Morse & Doan, 1987); and tested on a large randomly selected sample of pre- and post-menarcheal girls. The comparative analyses of the responses revealed a multifaceted but similar attitude structure for both groups. The pattern reveals both positive and negative effects to menstruation as well as unique attitudes about different aspects of the experience. Common item factor score comparisons noted significant differences between pre- and post-menarcheal girls on positive feelings, symptoms and openness factors, with premenarcheal girls having signficantly more positive and less negative attitude towards symptoms, while postmenarcheal girls had scores which indicated significantly more openness. The analysis of the unique items on each subscale (see Kieren & Morse, 1989) provided further insight about how pre- and post-menarcheal girls differ in attitudes.

The profiles of these two groups are far from complete. Further research needs to be done using common instruments and longitudinal analyses would also provide clarity. Even in the incomplete state that we find the data, however, it is clear that there are differences between premenarcheal and postmenarcheal females' attitudes toward menstruation. These differences suggest that these groups have different needs which should be incorporated into contemporary menstrual education programs. Research with young boys and men, who serve as important socializers of young women on this topic, is minimal (Clarke & Ruble, 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Ruble, 1986). The search which has been done, however, does indicate attitudes which have more similarity to those of premenarcheal rather than postmenarcheal girls. This is not surprising in that premenarcheal girls, and of course boys, lack the experience with menstruation to test and clarify their feelings and attitudes which appear to be based more on societal attitudes than the actual experience.

Redesigning Educational Programs

The call for a revision of menstrual education programs is not a new one. Fifteen years ago, Whisnant and Zegans (1975) and Whisnant et al. (1975) made suggestions for needed changes. There are few examples of any significant response to these suggestions. More recently Dashiff (1986), McNabb (1985), Cumming, Kieren, and Cumming (1988), and Cumming, Cumming, and Kieren (1989) have continued to suggest that attention be given to such aspects of menstrual education as: educators, target groups, objectives, timing, content and methods, and activities. It is time to follow through on these suggestions. The increased understanding of pre- and post-menarcheal girls' attitudes about menarche and menstruation needs to be incorporated into education content and process. The following recommendations are based on a series of basic assumptions about an effective menstrual education program:

Assumptions

An effective menstrual education program:

- recognizes and validates the ambivalent and sensual feelings a girl may experience at this stage of development;
- allows for and takes into account cultural, ethnic, racial, religious variations in development and attitudes;
- is timed to provide appropriate premenarcheal as well as postmenarcheal educational experiences;
- takes into account what is known about the development of adolescents;
- facilitates more open discussion about menstruation between peers, parents, and teens;
- integrates menarche and menstruation into the entire process of maturation;
- provides appropriate information about menstruation to males as well as females;
- includes physiological, cognitive, and psychological aspects of the menstrual process;
- builds in active learning experiences that appreciate the concrete thinking ability of adolescents;
- recognizes and encourages the partnership of parents, teachers, and medical personnel as formal participants in the learning process;
- is personal and reality based;
- utilizes clear and explicit language; and
- encourages less secrecy and more openness.

Educators

Formal participation in the menstrual education process should ideally include parents, teachers, and community leaders (especially medical personnel). While parents clearly express a desire to be involved, in actuality they fall short in action. Schools and medical personnel suffer as well from this inaction malady. New menstrual education programs need to validate participation of all three as partners and prepare each for their unique but complementary roles.

Parents begin their roles as sex educators at the birth of a child; not at puberty. Perhaps then, preparation for their role in menstrual education should be initiated in prenatal classes and renewed at various stages of the development cycle of their children. Parental involvement in menstrual education should be increased both at home and in school programs. In the school program, it should go beyond the previewing of materials. Parents need guidance both in determining timing, identifying the topics necessary at different ages and maturity levels to adequately prepare their child and deciding how to initiate the topic. Basic education about the process should be provided to parents along with a review of materials which could be used at home. Parental education should be provided prior to grade four and should include a discussion of developmental benchmarks so that parents can better recognize early maturational indicators.

Peers are an important part of menstrual education through informal contacts. Small group discussion which respects the privacy of each group member is one method to employ to allow students to develop comfort in communicating about menstruation. Peer educators could also be used to handle discussions about the menstrual experience.

Both teachers and medical personnel need preparation to handle the psychological as well as the physical aspects of menstrual education. Medical doctors have a unique opportunity to initiate discussion of body changes and to note markers of early development. It is the school teacher, however, who commands the greatest opportunity to generate healthy, open, and accuate sharing of information and attitudes about menstruation with young girls and boys.

Timing

Menstrual education should not be viewed as a single event. Rather it should be seen as a series of events which occur over the entire life cycle. Healthy sexuality education begins at birth. This is the foundation of effective menstrual education. Parents begin by assisting a child in obtaining a positive view of his or her body and providing a language to communicate about that body and the sensations associated with it. By the time a child is in the preschool years, he or she should have a vocabulary for all the body parts including the genitals. In addition, this is the time to begin to develop positive attitudes about one's self.

The next important point in menstrual education occurs prior to menarche for girls. At this time parents, teachers, and medical personnel build on the foundation of a language and attitude about one's body to prepare the child for the changes associated with puberty. The negative impact of lack of preparation for menarche on early maturers suggests that timing is a very significant factor to determine effectiveness of preparation. Parents and medical personnel may need to cooperate to identify the markers of early maturation in individual children in order to initiate menstrual education prior to that child's menarche. School programs should certainly be initiated by fourth grade but this timing should be adjusted to account for cultural differences in age of menarche.

There are few guidelines to determine when young boys should first receive menstrual education. Dashiff (1986) suggests that males' information should be given later than girls' to allow girls the chance to develop a sense of mastery about the event. In early adolescence, girls and boys need opportunities to discuss developmental issues like menstruation in separate gender sessions. Later, when they have developed greater comfort with their own development, they need opportunities to discuss these issues in mixed gender groups.

Data gathered to date about menstrual attitudes indicate that menstrual education needs to be provided at menarche and postmenarche as well. The time of menarche provides a unique opportunity to clarify understandings of the process, to acknowledge positive and negative feelings, to explore hygienic concerns, as well as to answer individual questions. Parents, and particularly mothers, are often in the best position to initiate this kind of discussion since they are often the first person to acknowledge the occurrence of menarche. During the post menarcheal period any number of educational points may be recognized. For many girls, the menstrual process is one which is uneven and irregular in the first months. This raises many questions and concerns. Later, there may be reason to initiate a more detailed discussion of the menstrual cycle, symptomatology, and to discuss sexual relations, sexual identity, and reproduction issues in much more detail.

Often, menstrual education is considered finished immediately after menarche. There is much reason to see it continue considerably beyond that point all the way to post-menopause. Most women find many opportunities to seek information about menstruation during the trans-menstruation phase, as they enter their childbearing phase and certainly as they enter pre-menopause, menopause, and post-menopause. These developmental markers are rarely treated as opportunities for education and understanding of a woman's key bodily function. A broadened view of the menstrual education process is necessary to enable women to be prepared for their own unique natural and idiosyncratic pattern of this long-term body function.

Target Groups

While pre- and post-menarcheal adolescent girls have constituted the primary target group for menstrual education, the lifetime continuum which has been suggested indicates that the target group should be expanded to include all women over various stages of their lives. Boys and men need to be educated about menstruation as well. As significant socializers of women, they need to have an accurate understanding of this process and its physical and psychological aspects. Young boys need to be introduced to the topic naturally in the home, perhaps initially as they observe signs of the management of menstruation in their own family, and later as they are given a broadened understanding of the developmental changes which both boys and girls experience at puberty. Their education should not stop at this point either. Long-standing taboos about sexual intercourse during menstruation continue to be perpetuated indicating that married men and women have not had opportunities to dispell negative views of menstruation. In addition, men often are even less prepared than their wives or partners for the physical and psychological changes associated with menopause. It is obvious as well that parents, teachers, and medical personnel need to be prepared better to carry out their educational functions with respect to sexuality education and menstrual education in particular.

Objectives: *Pre and** Post

The objectives for pre- and post-menarcheal experiences at home, school, and in medical situations will vary. The following provide some guidance for pre- and post-menarcheal educational experiences.

Upon completion of the educational experiences the adolescent will be able to:

- describe and accept the whole range of feelings she/he has about menstruation***;
- develop a positive feeling about her/his body and its functions ***;
- comfortably use correct body terms with peers as well as teachers ***;
- feel more comfortable asking questions about matters which are confusing to her/him ***;
- describe the senations associated with menstruation ***;
- experience more comfort in talking with peers about menstruation **;
- accept that there is a certain degree of nuisance and discomfort in managing menstrual hygiene **;
- develop a comfortable pattern of personal menstrual hygiene and management **;
- recognize the relationship between menarche and a girl's sense of sexual identity***;
- describe the physiological and psychological aspects of menstruation***;
- describe the relationship of menstruation to reproduction**; and
- identify how to handle menstrual health issues**.

Content

Four main topics should guide pre- and post-menstrual education programs: What is happening (or will happen); how do I (will I) feel about it?; how can I handle it?; and how can I handle menstrual health issues? (preventing problems).

Under the first topic there should be an opportunity to discuss the internal and external anatomy. This need not be done in a mechanical fashion. The role of hormones in triggering the process, the description of menstrual flow from inside to outside, and the sensations which a girl will have should be discussed. The description should be given in concrete terms using everyday language which the girl can understand and allow for small group experiences in which girls may feel more comfortable asking questions.

Research data about menstrual attitudes suggest that the questions how do I or will I feel about it? should receive considerable time. In a recent study by Morse, Kieren, Bottorff, and Donahue (1989), premenarcheal girls had significantly more positive attitudes and more positive attitudes toward symptoms than did post-menarcheal. On the other hand, they were anticipating being less open about communicating about menstruation. Perhaps the premenarcheal girl needs to develop a greater sense of comfort in talking about anticipated feelings. Students need to have an opportunity to express the myths they have heard about menstruation and to deal with the negative feelings which most will experience at one time or another about menstruation. The diversity of experience and the importance of getting to know your own body and its unique functioning should be emphasized rather than an emphasis on normality and sameness of experience. Premenarcheal girls should be encouraged to ask questions and to appreciate that they will follow their own timetables for menarche.

Managing menstruation should focus on flexibility and personal needs rather than ritualistic hygiene practices. This topic affords a unique opportunity to discuss the issue of touching the body and learning and recognizing sensations which are pleasurable as well as uncomfortable. A topic like Menstrual Health and Wellness gives an opportunity to deal with some of the real health issues which some women and girls do have to deal with including PMS, toxic shock syndrome, cramps, amenhorrea, etc. Reported evidence of tampon misuse indicates that girls are often unaware that improper use can damage the vagina and may contribute to conditions favorable to the development of toxic shock syndrome.

Research data as well as educational program planning theory support the importance of basing the content of a menstrual education program upon the unique needs of the group being served. Psychological responses differ for pre- and post-menarcheal girls. The premenarcheal girl has less concern with symptoms, and in general more positive attitudes. What is needed is to build some reality upon this foundation of relatively positive attitudes. Premenarcheal girls need to be given concrete information about what to expect and also need an opportunity to experience situations in which they can feel comfortable talking about the event and their concerns. Morse et al. (1989) data indicate that post-menarcheal girls actually do feel more comfortable talking about menarche and menstruation. If this is so, it provides an educational opportunity to continue the discussion of menstruation within a context of experience rather than anticipated responses.

Activities

Previous authors have noted the importance of recognizing the concrete thinking of adolescents in designing educational experiences. Menstrual processes need to be discussed in concrete rather than abstract terms. Models of the body, concrete descriptions of the sensations associated with menstrual flow, or actually estimating light, medium, and heavy flows using experiments can provide more reality to what is often described as a vague and mysterious educational experience. Increased amounts of peer and parent-child, teacher-child discussion is also important to break down the secrecy associated with this very natural body function.

Menstrual education provides several unique opportunities for life long sexuality education. Initial experiences need to be provided prior to the major changes of puberty, particularly first menarche. These, however, constitute but part of a comprehensive menstrual education program. Current efforts at home, school, and community for menstrual education do not fully take advantage of these opportunities because of the perpetuation of single session approaches and emphasis on providing information about physiological changes. Programs need to be revised to build in this long term perspective, to broaden the focus of preparation, and to personalize and demystify the approaches. In doing so, young women and young men will not only be prepared for normal developmental changes but also have greater opportunities to develop a better sense of themselves as sexual beings. □

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Canadian Family Policy: Income Security

Doris R. Badir

Abstract

Canada's policies on social security for its citizens are of great concern to home economists. The policy which Canadians have come to take pride in, as an example of the Canadian values placed on equality and justice, is gradually and quietly changing. This paper attempts to outline the basics of an income support system, the various ways in which poverty is defined in Canada, some figures regarding the extent of poverty, and the structure of the income support system developed during the 1960s and 1970s. Some of the changes that have recently been implemented are discussed. The article concludes with a challenge, to those whose interests are in the preservation of a quality of life for all Canadians, to become concerned over the direction of welfare policy in Canada.

Résumé

Les politiques Canadiennes de sécurité sociale pour les citoyens concernent grandement les spécialistes en économie familiale. La politique dont les Canadiens en sont fiers, comme exemple des valeurs Canadiennes d'égalité et de justice, change graduellement et lentement. Cet article essaie de souligner les éléments du système de support du revenu, les différentes façons par laquelle la pauvreté est définie au Canada, les données démontrant la dimension de la pauvreté, et la structure du système de support du revenu implantée durant les années 1960 et 1970. Quelques changements qui ont récemment été instauré sont discutés. L'article conclut par un défi, à tous ceux dont les intérêts sont la conservation d'une qualité de vie pour tous les Canadiens, à s'intéresser à la politique de la sécurité sociale du Canada.

All professionals working in the area of family support have had to try at one time or another to understand the systems of income support (welfare systems) that the jurisdiction within which they worked has legislated. The task set for this paper has been one of trying to explain the income support systems presently operating in Canada, to mention some of the problems being faced by both politicians and professionals as they try to develop policy for the delivery of these services, and to explain the services prosently in place.

Any discussion of social services or of welfare systems implies a program to ensure a continuity of income to minimize the risks, in an industrial society, which result from unemployment, sickness, disability, dealth, the absence of a breadwinner, pregnancy and child-bearing, old age, and retirement. There are concomitant risks which treaten the adequacy of income such as family size, the costs of medical and hospital care, shelter costs, low earnings, and inflation. These are universal risks which affect all of us at some time or another but put a particular pressure on certain groups and individuals in our societies. There is a dependent element of every population of persons who are unable to work because they are elderly, children, or because they are afflicted with some physical or mental disability which makes it impossible for them to work. Most industrialized countries are committed to some form of redistribution of wealth which ensures that the basic needs of all citizens are met.

Canadian Values and Social Security

Canada, politically speaking, has been open to consideration of, and development of, a Welfare State. Canadians have always placed a high value on collective security and the maintenance of minimum standards. Since 1943 there has been constant progress toward the development of universal income support systems, as well as health and education programs which enhance social security.

Insuring Financial Security

Basically there are five ways by which members of a society can feel financially secure:

- as savings on salary: investment income and employment pensions, or
- as social support: sole income, which is often defined as welfare,
- as social insurance: such as the Canada/Québec Pension Plans and Unemployment Insurance,
- as a universal grant (demogrant) such as Old Age Security and Family Allowance, or
- through adjustments to the Personal Income Tax system.

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Defining Poverty

Ross and Shillington (1989) outline two approaches to defining poverty in a 20th century economy. One approach is through the "belief that one can determine an absolute measure of poverty by examining essentials necessary for physical survival". The other is based on the belief in the "notion of the extent to which society should tolerate inequality in the distribution of income" (Ross and Shillington, 1989 p. 3).

Defining the "poverty level" has become an important exercise for economists. Following from the Ross and Shillington stance one finds two practical means of defining poverty – budget comparisons and income comparisons:

- Budget comparisons – define poverty in absolute terms of as either:
    subsistence – arrived at by setting out the minimum requirements needed for family survival – shelter, food, clothing, and basic health care
    or
    social adequacy – building on subsistence needs and including budget expenditure items taken for granted by most people.
- Income comparisons – define poverty in relative terms either by:
    determining the average household income and calculating the poverty line as an arbitrary percentage of that average,
    or
    calculating what the "average family" spends on necessities and then making a judgment that any family which had to spend more is living below the poverty line.

  (Income comparisons define poverty in terms of whether one household has considerably less income than other households).

The approach that is chosen is based primarily on whether or not concerns are for a more equitable way of distributing the society's wealth or whether one is primarily concerned with allowing people to survive. In using the budget approach one equates subsistence with adequancy and acts accordingly. By using the income approach one assumes that daily newspapers, movies, annual vacations, meat, fresh fruit, and sports equipment should be a part of every household budget.

There is no 'Canadian' definition of poverty. Rather, depending upon the jurisdiction, there can be either the 'income' or 'budget' approach or a combination of the two. There appear to be at least four ways of measuring poverty in Canada:

- The Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD) has adopted the income or relative approach and has set its poverty line at 50% of average Canadian family income for a family of three (this would be pre-tax income using all sources of income: interest, profit, wages, Unemployment Insurance). Therefore, using the 1989 average Canadian income ($50,000), and adjusting for inflation rates, CCSD assigns $27,582 as the 1991 low-income cut-off for a family of three. Adjustments are then made for family size (George, 1991, pp. 40-41).

- In 1971 the Senate conducted a survey of poverty in Canada and while its procedure is roughly the same as the CCSD they make adjustments for income taxes paid and for yearly changes in family size. It is a relative approach and was primarily intended as a basis for a guaranteed annual income program. Basically it amounts to a poverty cut-off at about 56% of average Canadian Family income ($28,000 based on a 1989 mean income of $50,000).

- Statistics Canada (Stats Can), the official statistics gathering arm of the federal government, uses a method which is a mixture of the budget and relative income approaches. This is as close as Canada comes to having an official definition of poverty. They devise a low-income cut-off based on the results of their surveys of household expenditures. This survey covers the entire population except Yukon and the Northwest Territories, natives living on reservations, and inmates of institutions. It includes the income of all household members over the age of 15. It defines family as all occupants of a dwelling unit who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption and includes couples living together in common-law. They locate the percentage of income spent on basic necessities (food, clothing, and shelter) and then, by adding a 20% mark-up, they determine that any family that spends more than this proportion of its income on necessities would be living in 'straitened circumstances'. They vary the low-income cut-off level with the number of family members and they make a distinction between rural and urban communities. Using this process, the 1989 average income figures, and adjusting for inflation in 1990 and 1991, George suggests that the 1991 poverty level for a family of three would be $25,641 (George, 1991, pp. 40-41).

- Provincial Social Assistance Rates are based on the 'budget' approach and, while the variation from province to province is great, one can look upon social assistance as 'the definition of minimum income that has received the sanction of government' (Ross & Shillington, 1989). There does not appear to be any attempt on the part of the provinces to determine whether the level of subsistence provided does indeed cover the basic necessities of food, clothing, and shelter.

Who Are the Poor?

Using the Stats Can figures it is important to determine how many of Canada's citizens fall below the poverty line. The Social Report Card, prsented in the CCDS *Overview* (1990) shows decreases in income among the 15-24 year-old households but increases in the income of individuals, families, and households generally. It shows an increase in the numbers living below the poverty level as defined by Stats Can among households of 15 to 24 year-olds, among senior couples, and among female lone parents. It shows a decrease in the numbers for senior individuals while families and children remained the same (CCSD *Overview*, 1990, p. 8).

Moving from families to children, CCSD, using Stats Can figures and some special tabulation of a Survey of Consumer Finance conducted by Tristat Resources Ltd., calculate that about 17% (190,570) of children under 18 years of age are poor. Some 37% of children living in poverty live in two-parent households and some 38% of children in poverty live in single parent families (CCSD *Overview*, 1989, p. 8).

The elderly are another group, a large proportion of whom, appear to live in poverty. Social Trends reported in 1988 that, while the numbers had been decreasing over the period 1971 to 1986, about 45% of unattached women over 65, 30% of unattached men over 65, and about 9% of elderly husband-wife families remained below the poverty line as established by Stats Can. The average real income of husband-wife families where the husband was over 65 was approximately $28,000 in 1986 (Lindsay & Donald, 1988).

Income and Income Distribution

Ross reports that the real income of an average Canadian family increased in 1989 to $50,083 before taxes. The median family income in 1989 was $44,460 (Ross, 1991). Family incomes improved and the number of families living below the poverty line decreased. The distribution of income, however, is considerably skewed. The poorest 20% of families received about 4.8% of total income, up 0.5% from 1979. The low-middle or second quintile lost income by about 0.3% in the same period. Middle and upper-middle income families (the third and fourth quintiles of the population) lost income, each down by about 1%. The top 20% (where the lowest income was $69,600) increased its share by 1.3%, which in 1989 represented about 43.2% of total Canadian income. In other words, between 1979 and 1989 there was a shift of income from the middle and upper-middle income families to the poorest and the richest families in Canada (George, 1991).

It is the perception of many that the concept of the minimum wage is an insurance against poverty. It would appear that this insurance has weakened considerably over the past few years. The minimum wage rates vary from province to province with the national average coming out at $5.14 per hour. The lowest rate is that of the Federal government at $4.00 per hour while the highest rates, not surprisingly are found in the Yukon and the Northwest Territories at $6.24 per hour and $6.00 per hour respectively (Hess, 1991). Hess reports that one in 12 workers earned the adult minimum wage, or less, at some time during 1989. Women account for 60% of low-paid workers as opposed to 45% of all paid workers. Current minimum wage rates provide incomes that are thousands of dollars below the Statistics Canada poverty line. The current estimate is that in 1991 the minimum wage rates equal only 69.8% of the poverty line (Hess, 1991, p. 31). It is not known how many, if any, of the workers receiving these low incomes are entirely dependent on that wage. A number of low-wage earners may receive Unemployment Insurance payments for a part of the year; others may be eligible for welfare. Minimum wage rates are not adjusted to keep pace with the rise in increases in the cost of living. Low wage earners are not in a position to negotiate wage increases and employers argue that raising the minimum wage rate would contribute to higher costs and ultimately reduced employment (Hess, 1991).

Income Support Programs in Canada

Since most social policy has had as its intent the redistribution of wealth, it is important to look at the major income support systems in Canada today and to establish the extent to which they accomplish any redistribution.

For purposes of clarification, the income support programs provided for Canadians are divided into four of the five categories mentioned earlier:

- *Demogrants*: — universal grants to groups on the basis of demographic characteristics. In Canada there are three programs in this category.

  Family Allowances: The Family Allowance is a federal demogrant which was introduced in the mid-forties in a bid to bolster the economy by putting money into the hands of the consumer. It is payable to all families with dependent children under 18, and redistributes income in accordance with family size. It varies by provinde with Alberta and Quebec choosing to supplement the Federal Grant. The current rate averages out at $34.00 per month per child (October 1991).

  The Old Age Security (OAS) program is a federal government demogrant available to everyone over the age of 65. It is non-contributory and was intended to be the foundation for a retirement income to which individuals would add income from other retirement schemes. It is indexed to the cost of living, with adjustments made on a quarterly basis. The current rate is $373.72 per month (October 1991). It is taxable.

  The Spouse's Allowance is designed for the spouses of Old Age Security pensioners who are between the ages of 60 and 64. The maximum equals the OAS rate plus the maximum Guaranteed Income Supplement (GIS) married rate but is reduced (decreasing from 75% to 25%) when there is outside income. It is income-tested for the poriton that exceeds the OAS.

- *Social Insurance*: Social insurance programs are employment related and require some balance between contributions of employer, employee, and the government.

  The Canada/Québec Pension Plan is a contributory, wage-related pension program which receives contributions from both employee and employer. Participation is compulsory for both the employer and the employee. Contributions are tax deductible. The maximum CPP pensions pay out only 25% of pensionable earnings averaged over the contributor's life. This amounts to an average payment of $343.10 per month (October 1991). The benefits are fully indexed to the cost of living. Persons outside the labor market (housewives/househusbands) do not benefit. The plans, however, provide reduced pensions for survivors (widows, widowers, and orphans) and disability pensions. It is estimated that 44% of the income for families headed by senior women, and 24% of families headed by senior men, comes from these plans (Burke, 1991).

  Unemployment Insurance: Unemployment insurance in Canada is federally administered. Both the employee and the employer contribute. The contributions are wage-related (2.25% from the employee and 1.4 times that amount contributed by the employer). There was a substantial contribution from the federal government prior to 1990 when all federal support for this program was withdrawn. Ninety-five percent of the labor force are covered. It pays 60% of average insured earnings after a waiting period of two weeks. The maximum weekly benefit in 1990 was $364.00. A person must have worked 10-14 weeks in the past 52 to be eligible and can draw on the plan for up to 50 weeks. Benefits can be extended in areas of high unemployment. This plan also allows for up to 15 weeks illness and 15 weeks maternity leave. The benefit is taxable.

  Workmens Compensation: In Canada this program provides financial, medical, and rehabilitative assistance to workers who become disabled by accidents or illness related to their jobs. It is provincially funded.

- *Social Assistance*: Social assistance is a form of grant based on the residual income needs of the society — the needs of the blind, mothers, the aged, and the unemployed. It is a means-tested or income-tested system. It is usually administered by a local government, either county or municipal. It performs one of three main functions:

Income Substitution — providing an alternae source of primary support for the household unit.

Income Replacement — taking over on exhaustion of unemployment insurance entitlements, training stipends, and so forth.

The amount of social assistance available in these ways for an employable couple with two children varies from $8,772 in New Brunswick to $13,320 in Saskatchewan (Ross and Shillington, 1989): quoted from the Ontario Social Assistance Review Committee p. 13).

Income Supplementation — adding to earned income, a pension, or another social security benefit, because what is available is below what is defined as a social minimum.

Guaranteed Income Supplement (GIS) This is an income tested supplement to the Old Age Security for those in need over sixty-five. Any outside income reduces the payment by $1 for every $2 of outside income.

Burke (1991) reports that 22% of the income of women over the age of 65 and 24% of the income of men over the age of 65 comes from OAS and GIS allowance.

Child Tax Credits: Families with children eligible for Family Allowance are generally eligible for Tax Credits. There is a maximum credit level for each child. There is a fixed exemption level and as net income exceeds the exemption level, credit is reduced by $0.05 for every excess $1.00 of income. The exemption level, and the credit level change with changes in the cost of living.

A number of provinces have what amounts to income supplements which come in the form of direct supplements to low-income workers (Saskatchewan, Québec, Manitoba), or as work incentive programs which are transitional programs designed to assist social assistance recipients to leave the welfare rolls (Ontario, British Columbia).

Social Assistance comes in all these forms in Canada. It is difficult to generalize beyond this statement because the administration and support at local levels varies.

Who pays for Income Security Programs

Through the *Canada Assistance Plan* (CAP), the federal government reimburses the provinces for fifty percent of the cost of their social assistance programs. There are major provincial variations in benefits and administration. The major conditions for the receipt of federal funds are that aid programs be based on a needs test, that residence is not a requirement for eligibility, and that an appeals mechanism be in place. There has been a significant improvement to income maintenance programs since CAP came into being in 1966. Moreover, the funding through CAP covers such rehabilitation services as casework, counselling, adoption services, home-maker and day-care services, all of which were formerly funded solely by the provinces. In 1989, 1.9 million Canadians received direct financial assistance from provincial programs (Ross, 1991).

Burke suggests that by the year 2030 the number of persons in the population over 65 will outnumber the dependent population under the age of 15. The costs of social security will thus shift radically with more than 50% being absorbed by the over 65s. Spending on the under 15 age group will drop from around 24% to 15% and on the 15 to 64 age group from 50% to 35%. The average annual cost of social spending increased by 4.5% per annum between 1961 and 1986. Burke anticipates that between 1980 and 2040 the social costs will have increased by 204%. It becomes obvious, therefore, that benefit levels cannot remain constant. The OECD projects that Canada will be faced with sharp increased in tax burdens between the years 2005 to 2040: "Canadians will most likely have to choose between increasing tax rates and social security contributions or lower levels of social benefits" (Burke, 1991).

Weaknesses in the Canadian Income Support System

Canadian income maintenance programs suffer from two weaknesses: fragmentation where too many programs are attempting to do the same thing and a benefits system which is not adequate to assure a minimumly adequate income. They have, nevertheless, been powered by those fundamental Canadian values which have been responsible for making our social policies and programs an integral part of our national identity. Social programs in Canada, hoever, have been undergoing some very important changes in the past two or three years as government policy has taken its toll of the Social Assistance programs.

In 1990 the federal government passed a number of bills which effectively reduced their participation in social programs:

Bill C-28 resulted in a clawback of family allowance and Old Age Security benefits from Canadians with incomes in excess of $50,000.

Bill C-21 amended the Unemployment Insurance Act so that there is now a more stringent eligibility criteria (workers are now required to work from 10 to 20 weeks to qualify for UI); a cut in the length of the benefit period (duration of benefits will depend upon the number of weeks worked and on regional unemployment statistics).

Bill C-69 limits the increases in the federal contribuion to social assistance programs in Ontario, British Columbia, and Alberta to 5%. These three provinces contain almost one-half of Canada's welfare recipients and this reduction is likely to have the effect of keeping social assistance rates well below adequacy (these ran at an avrage of difference, for female lone-parent families in 1986, of from $6,162 to $6,365 below the Statistics Canada low-income cut-off), and to result also, in an increase in the social assistance caseload (George, 1991).

Not all of the changes in government policy have been detrimental:

- The change to the Uenployment Insurance Act resulted in the provision of an additional 10 week parental leave for natural or adoptive parents. These are available to either fathers and or mothers or may be shared between them.
- Workers over 65 now must contribute to UI but qualify for benefits under the usual conditions rather than a three-week pay-out.

- Amendments to the Income Tax Act increased the income ceiling from $16,513 to $24,769 for prepayment of Child Tax Credit for families with three or more children.

The data presented here shows clearly that, while Canadians have put in place a system of income support which resembles, in many ways the Welfare Stats of northern Europe, there are still a great many gaps. There are still far too many children living in poverty [863,000 in 1991 (George, 1991)].

While the rate of poverty among senior citizens has been decreasing as a result of the full indexing of public pension schemes, there are still far too many families headed by the elderly [estimated to be 11% for families and 45.2% for individuals in 1991 (George, 1991)].

The numbers of individuals living below the Statistics Canada low-income cut-off in 1989 was estimated at 3,487,000 (George, 1991). Poverty and near-poverty remain issues in Canada in the nineties.

A review of this sort does little to give one hope for the preservation of Canadian values of social justice and the welfare state. It will require constant vigilance and action on the part of Canadian home economists, who hold the interest and welfare of Canadian families as their mission, to maintain their support systems which have been put in place since the 1960s. ☐

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Author's Note: *Since the statistics used to describe the welfare of Canadians change with great rapidity, readers are encouraged to keep abreast of them through continued reference to the publications of Statistics Canada, the Canadian Council for Social Development, and their provincial and local social service agencies.*

A Rationale for Home Economics Teachers' Involvement in Eating Disorders Prevention

K.L. Nagel and Karen H. Jones

Abstract

In a recent national survey of 246 American home economics teachers, 63% reported that eating disorders were a problem at their school. Canadian statistics also indicate that eating disorders are a problem in females between the ages of 14 and 25. Eating disorders have been described as being on a continuum with the restricting anorexic at one end and the obese bulimic on the opposite end. Persons having either anorexia or bulimia have been characterized as having such an intense fear of being out of control with food and consequential weight gain that they are willing to use life risking measures to control their weight. Research reporting on the outcome of traditional therapies to correct an existing eating disorder has been pessimistic. As a result, a number of practitioners are endorsing prevention programs for eating disorders to be implemented in public schools. The focus of this article is on the need for, and the means by which the home economics teachers can become involved in such a prevention effort.

Résumé

Dans une récente recherche nationale auprès de 246 enseignants Américains, 63% ont exprimés que la malnutrition causaient des problèmes dans leur école. Les statistique Canadiennes indiquent aussi que la malnutrition cause des problèmes aux femmes de 14 à 25 ans. La malnutrition a été décrite comme étant une conséquence de restriction alimentaire anorexique d'une part et à la boulimie obèse d'autre part. Les personnes étant anorexiques ou boulimiques ont été reconnues comme ayant une telle peur d'être controlées par les aliments, et par conséquence de gagner du poids, qu'elles sont facilement disposées à utiliser des mesures néfastes à leur santé pour contrôler leur poids. Lest résultats obtenus, dune recherche sur les thérapies traditionnelles, pour corriger les problèmes de malnutrition, sont pessimistes. Par la suite, certains spécialistes ont appuyé les programmes de prévention sur les désordres alimentaires implantés dans les écoles. Le but de cet article concerne les besoins et les moyens par lesquels les enseignants en économie familiale peuvent s'engager dans un tel effort de prévention des désordres alimentaires.

American national organizations on eating disorders estimate as much as 20% of the female population, between the ages 12-30 years, have an eating disorder (Anorexia Nervosa and Associated Disorders; Anorexia Nervosa and Related Eating Disorders, Inc.). Likewise, the National Eating Disorders Information Center in Toronto reports that 10-20% of females between 14-25 years of age, exhibit some characteristics of anorexia or bulimia. In a nation-wide survey of 246 American vocational home economics teachers, 63% indicated that they had known of someone affected with an eating disorder. Fifty-one percent of these teacher respondents reported that their personal experience was with a student who had anorexia and/or bulimia nervosa. Concerning how prevalent these disorders were among the student population these respondents teach, an alarming majority (n = 157, 62.6%) of these teachers reported that eating disorders were a problem at their school (Nagel, 1989).

Eating disorders may be conceptualized as being on a continuum and as having a spectrum of variations. Specifically, at one end there are individuals who are anorexic only, often referred to as restricting anorexia nervosa. At the opposite end of the continuum are individuals who are bulimic and obese. Levine (1987) describes four other eating disorder variations that may be found in the middle of the continuum. They include: anorexia in persons who also use bulimic techniques (binge-purge); bulimia in persons who were previously and who may, intermittently, be anorexic; normal weight bulimia; and bulimia in previously obese persons. This continuum is not based on severity of symptoms. Anorexia with bulimia superimposed on it is often described as the most potentially life threatening condition resulting from complications associated with both starvation and dehydration (Garfinkel Moldofsky, &

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Note: Research was conducted through the University of Georgia, 1989.

Garner, 1980). Regardless of the point on the continuum a particular eating disorder may be described, a number of characteristics are common to all eating disorders. These commonalities include: body image disturbances and distortions; obsessiveness and preoccupation around the processes of food, eating, and weight control; out of control behavior; low self-esteem; self-depreciation; social skill deficits; overconforming; and interpersonal distrust. Other symptoms that are common to an anorexic and/or bulimic eating disordered person include: abnormally low body weight or weight that frequently fluctuates ten or more pounds within a short period of time; disruption of menstrual cycle; teeth or sore marks on the hands resulting from self-induced vomiting; unusual compulsive behavior concerning exercise; and emaciated appearance such as protruding bones.

Eating disordered individuals may also have enlarged parotid gland (looking similar to mumps) resulting from repeated self-induced vomiting following binge; make frequent trips to the bathroom, especially after meals; exhibit hair loss on the head; complain of being cold when no one else is; have fine, downy hair covering the body surface; wear bulky clothes to hide thinness or drinking large amounts of water before weigh-ins. These features may or may not be present depending on the particular variety of eating disorder or may be symptoms of an entirely different disorder.

Outcome Rates

Research reporting on the outcome rates of various treatments designed to cure an existing eating disorder has been pessimistic. For example, Hsu and Crisp (1979) conducted a 4-year follow-up on 100 females with a history of anorexia and bulimia. They found that despite intervention, 50% of the respondents continued to have physiological complications resulting from their abnormal eating patterns including: amenorrhea or menstrual irregularities; body weight below 85% of the minimal standards; and, for 2% of the respondents, death had occurred as a result of their deteriorated physiological status. Similar descriptions of unsuccessful outcomes have been reported by Crisp, 1965; Browning and Miller, 1968; Frazier, 1965; and have also been cited by Andersen (1990) for the male eating disordered population.

The American Psychiatric Association reports up to an 18% mortality rate for anorexics resulting from physiological complications. Recognizing the great difficulties in treating eating disorders and the life threatening consequences of not successfully treating them, mental and health care workers and educators have been endorsing preventative programs.

Prevention

Traditionally, the mental health field has recognized three levels of prevention: primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention (Levine, 1987). Concerning the prevention of eating disorders, primary prevention is designed to address sociocultural and individual factors that increase the risk of an eating disorder developing. Primary prevention focusses on social and individual factors that may influence a person's nutritional knowledge, eating habits, body image, self-esteem, and coping skills. Its goal is to intervene before an eating disorder has developed.

Secondary prevention occurs after an eating disorder has already developed and involves early identification, accurate referral, and prompt treatment. Its goal is to prevent acute problems from developing into severe, chronic, even terminal disorders.

Tertiary prevention represents a full scale prevention program. It requires the coordination of professionals from a number of disciplines including psychologists, medical doctors, and dietitians. Tertiary prevention's most basic goal is to prevent continuance or relapse in an individual who has or has previously had an eating disorder.

Levine (1987) suggests that given the degree of expertise and responsibility associated with each of these prevention levels, the teachers' and schools' most significant contribution during a preventative program will be at the primary and secondary levels. The focus of this article will be on primary prevention programs in the school for eating disorders.

Primary Prevention

A number of researchers have discussed the importance of and success rates with primary prevention programs in the schools when used for such social problems as teen drug and alcohol abuse, suicide, and pregnancy (Ginzberg et al., 1988; Pfeifer, 1986; Christopher, 1988; Hermes, 1987; Pfeffer, 1986). The better programs are designed to educate students on the dangers and risks associated with the problem issue itself. This is usually supplemented with time devoted to teaching students ways to improve their self-esteem, coping, adapting, and decision making skills (Pfeifer, 1986; Ginzberg et al., 1988). Ginzberg et al. (1988) explain that preventative programs have tried to incorporate methods for equipping students with skills designed to more effectively deal with peer pressure, develop a stronger self-concept and level of self-esteem. Impact success rates of these various school prevention programs have been positive (Ginsberg et al., 1988).

A number of researchers have similarly suggested the significant role the school holds in the primary prevention of eating disorders (Thompson, 1985; McNab, 1983; Dagenais, 1987; Mallick, 1984; Giles et al., 1984; Rittner, 1984; Christiansen et al., 1986; Kapoor, 1986; Zimmer, 1986; Bruce, 1986). Specifically, researchers identify the unique position the home economics teacher can have during primary prevention efforts (Shisslak et al., 1987; Hodges, 1985; Levine, 1987). Hodges (1985) describes home economics teachers as being in a position to incorporate concepts and present educational materials related to the topic of eating disorders. The home economics teacher has often developed an interpersonal relationship with her students and is also in a position to provide them with reliable counsel concerning nutritional matters and encourage a positive self-image, responsibility, and independence. Because of their frequent interaction with their students regarding the subject areas commonly associated with home economics, the home economics teacher can easily address the weight and dieting concerns of students and notice or watch for unusual responses.

Nutritional Knowledge

Skinner et al., (1984), and others (Tift et al., 1972; Sutton, 1962), have reported on the lack of accurate knowledge among the adolescent population concerning basic nutritional principles, or proper weight control techniques. For example, in their study of 1,193 teenage students, Skinner et al. (1984) discovered that following the administration of a general nutritional knowledge test, students' mean percentage scores were very low (i.e. 39.4% ± 11.6% items correct). A large number of the items that were incorrectly answered on the test related to the weight control area. For example, 43% of the students defined a calorie as the amount of fat in food and only 33% of these students recognized the important role of carbohydrates in providing energy (Skinner et al., 1984).

Dwyer et al. (1970) investigated the nutritional knowledge of a sample of high school students (n = 1,338) in which the majority had, at some time, been exposed to nutritional education. They discovered that for these students the mean percentage score on a nutritional knowledge test was less than 56% of the items correct. When distinguishing by sex, despite their higher overall score, the female students scored lower than the males on areas having to do with weight loss and gain, energy metabolism, and energy output. Searles et al. (1986) investigated nutritional knowledge in adolescents who had or were dieting. They discovered that, while most all of the adolescents were knowledgeable about principles of energy intake and expenditure, the majority lacked knowledge concerning safe and reasonable dieting practices.

Nutritional Knowledge Source

Where does the typical individual turn to get their information when not provided in the traditional classroom? The overriding source appears to be in popular books, magazines, and television (Wooley et al., 1982; Yudkin et al., 1981; ANRED; Skinner et al., 1984; Barr, 1986; Freeland-Graves et al., 1982). For example, Skinner et al. (1984) describe that 70% of the teenagers in their study reported that they had acquired their knowledge of nutrition from TV (this includes commercials); 60% reported popular magazines as a prime source; and 54%, popular books. Parham et al. (1986) surveyed 1,354 North American households and discovered that 1/3 of the respondents who had made a recent change in food practices cited newspapers, magazines, and TV as being the key influential factors in their decision. Parham et al. (1982) explained that dieters are especially likely to turn to popular magazines as their primary source for information on diet and weight control. However, as some researchers point out, the accuracy of such sources for weight control and nutrition information is highly questionable. For example, based on assessment of 67 articles on weight control in 37 popular women's and teenagers' magazines, Parham et al. (1986) discovered only 22 articles (33%) could be described as containing information that was completely accurate. Earlier discoveries by Parham et al. (1982), in a comparable study, found similar findings with expert judges only viewing this study's 66 articles as "fairly" accurate. In addition to the errors of accuracy, Parham et al. (1982, 1986) pointed out the overwhelming emphasis in these magazines was on issues concerning weight control as opposed to providing readers with general nutritional knowledge. Table 1 presents an evaluation study by Hudnall (1982) of 6 popular magazines that individuals frequently use for nutritional information.

Table 1. Accuracy of Nutrition Information in Popular Magazines

Magazine	Circulation	Accurate n	Inaccurate n	Percent Accurate %
Mademoiselle	920,000	17	20	46
Essence	600,000	10	17	37
Cosmopolitan	2,800,000	14	24	37
Harper's Bazaar	630,000	12	29	29
Organic Gardening	1,300,000	2	6	25
Prevention	2,000,000+	3	28	10

Source: M. Hudnall, "ACSH News and Views", *American Council on Science and Health* 3 (1982): 1.

Nutrition Education

Yukdin (1964b), suggested that an optimal nutrition education program requires the inclusion of three component stages: knowledge, attitude, and behavior. The first stage, knowledge, involves an increase in the person's understanding of basic nutritional principles and concepts. The second stage, attitude, involves a change in the person's belief system which is highly influenced by both internal and external factors and which ultimately motivate the person to act or react in the way they do during the third stage, behavior. The behavior stage requires the persons actual decision choices regarding nutrition to be amended. Yudkin (1964b) adds that imparting knowledge should never be considered in and of itself "nutrition education". Quality nutrition education programs will take into account all three of these components and their interactions. A number of researchers (Miller, 1976; Schwartz et al., 1983; Moody, 1982) have stressed the importance of students learning to think about food in all of its complexities (nutritional, social, psychological, etc.) as a preparation for a lifetime of decision making, rather than simply learning about a set of nutritional principles, concepts, and habits. Along these lines, Brush et al. (1986) described an affective based nutritional education program they developed which took into account Yudkin's (1964b) three proposed components: knowledge, attitude, behavior. Brush's et. al. program was directed at enhancing long-term decision making abilities rather than simply encouraging transient adjustments of previous food habits. Topics covered in their five-week nutritional education program included basic concepts and principles, factors that influence eating habits, the influence of family members on food choices, eating on the run, nutrition related concerns and disorders, and judging the reliability of nutritional information. Students were further encouraged to relate and assess their own values concerning food and nutrition, and to develop their own objectives related to these areas in their lives. Results indicated both nutrition knowledge and behavior improved from pre-test to post-test. Brush's et al., program seems especially applicable when considered for use during a primary prevention effort against eating disorders. In particular, since it focusses on long-term effects and decision making skills, and because it addresses the multidimensional nature food plays in one's life and in society. However, primary prevention cannot stop here. Food is not the only or even most important issue to consider when attempting to prevent an eating disorder. Methods for developing a greater self-esteem, issues around body image, and techniques for equipping individuals to cope better with life stressors must also be addressed.

Body Image/Self-Esteem and Coping Skills

Recognizing the importance of self-esteem and body image factors in the etiology of eating disorders, some researchers have stressed the importance of preventative efforts aimed at assisting adolescents and young adults develop greater self-acceptance and better strategies for dealing with others' negative comments about them (Grant et al., 1986; McBridge, 1986). For instance, McBridge (1986) suggests educators interested in implementing a primary prevention program should consider including the following three topics in their curricular content: body image and self-acceptance, stress management and competition, and nutrition and weight management.

Other researchers have pointed out the significance of life stressors preceding the development of an eating disorder and the need for particularly at risk individuals to be better prepared and equipped to cope with such events (Strober, 1984).

Primary preventative programs need not only directly address eating disorders as a topic, but also include a number of related areas relevant to the topic.

Conclusion

Adolescents need to be educated concerning how to make healthy nutritional decisions and encouraged to adopt realistic and safe habits and expectations about weight control. They need to be helped to develop a greater self-acceptance and belief in their own personal effectiveness, to look beyond the purely physical aspects of their being, and to actualize themselves as total individuals who have both personal and social worth. In these current times when the family as an institution is undergoing major transformations and society in general is rapidly evolving, adolescents must be equipped with strategies for coping with the consequential stressors of life's fast and confusing pace. The home economics teacher is in a front row position to ensure that these issues are appropriately discussed with their students. Ultimately, the home economics teacher is in an important position to contribute to early prevention of eating disorders. □

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Le développement du concept de soi en relation avec le comportement vestimentaire à divers stades du cycle de la vie

Agathe Gagné Collard

Résumé

Le concept de soi est un vecteur dans le développement humain. Plusieurs facteurs peuvent influencer ce développement. Cet article a pour but de mettre en relief l'impact que peut avoir le comportement vestimentaire dans le développement du concept de soi en relation avec les âges du cycle de vie. Les aspects dominants des stades de la vie servent de points de repères pour mettre en lumière la perception du soi, son cheminement complexe et variable, ainsi que le rôle de la tenue vestimentaire dans ces sentiers de la maturité humaine.

Abstract

The self concept is a vector of human development. This development may be influenced by many factors. The purpose of this article is to demonstrate how clothing behavior influences the development of the self concept, in relation with the life cycle stages. The dominant aspects of the life stages will serve as reference points to help highlight self perception, its complex and changing development, and the role clothing plays on human maturity.

Qui suis-je?.... Répondre à cette question c'est révéler à soi-même et aux autres, c'est refléter l'impression globale que l'on se fait de soi, c'est définir en quelque sorte le concept de soi.

Le concept de soi semble être une façon très personnelle de concevoir ce qui existe dans l'intimité profonde de chaque être. «Américains comme Européens réfèrent sensiblement aux mêmes contenus, ensemble de traits, images, sentiments que l'individu reconnaît comme faisant partie de lui-même» (L'Écuyer, 1978 p. 34).

> The self concept intuitively seems to be a very personal one. It exists "inside" the individual; it is present even when he or she is alone in a dark room. (Shlenker, 1980, p. 54)

La notion de concept de soi varie selon les écoles de pensées. Ainsi Rogers (1951) la perçoit comme une configuration organisée des perceptions de soi admissibles à la conscience, *c'est le soi phénoménal.* Mead (1934) perçoit le soi en tant que fruit de l'interaction sociale, il apparaît ainsi comme un produit de la société et devient alors une sorte d'introjection de la façon dont les autres nous perçoivent. A cet égard, le vêtement peut devenir un facteur important dans la qualité du «feedback»*du soi social.* Pour Arieti (1967) et Jacobson (1964) le soi constitue une entité subjective plus ou moins fortement influencée par l'insconscient.

Difficultés rencontrées

> En dépit du nombre élevé de publications relatives au concept de soi, le nombre de travaux spécifiquement consacrés à l'étude de son évolution lui est relativement restreint. Il semble que bien que l'on affirme que le concept de soi grandit avec l'âge, qu'il peut être stable sur des intervalles de temps plus ou moins longs, qu'il est plus positif à certaines étapes, qu'il est relié à une foule de phénomènes (tels: éducation, statut socio-économique, rôles, intelligence, race, etc.). Quant à savoir ce qui dans le temps, grandit dans le concept de soi, ce qui est stable ou changeant, positif ou négatif, voilà des précisions difficiles à trouver. (L'Écuyer, 1978, p. 14)

C'est donc consciente de ces difficultés et des limites de la recherche que je propose une incursion dans ce vecteur du développement. Et, comme si le défi n'était pas suffisant, fortement influencée par un intérêt personnel, j'accolerai à ce vecteur l'une des facettes pouvant avoir un impact sur le développement du concept de soi soit le comportement vestimentaire. Il n'est que de penser que la nudité ayant été rejetée dans presque toutes les cultures, on ne peut nier, de ce fait, que le choix d'un vêtement pourrait facilement être influencé par la manière de se percevoir.

A bien y réfléchir, notre corps, ce soi somatique se montre socialement la plupart du temps recouvert parfois jusqu'à 90% de sa surface.

Très peu de psychologues se sont penchés sur cet aspect de l'impact que peut avoir le comportement vestimentaire dans le développement du concept de soi relié aux âges du cycle de la vie.

Les auteurs qui traitent des aspects psychologiques et sociologiques des

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attitudes vestimentaires nous réfèrent à peu près tous à l'ouvrage de M.S. Ryan: *Clothing: A study in human behavior* (1966), lorsqu'ils traitent du concept de soi. En effet, cette auteure consacre trois chapitres aux aspects psychosociologiques du vêtement reliés à l'âge. Bien que cet ouvrage date de plus de vingt ans, il reste quand même très actuel.

Cependant, le cheminement proposé par l'Écuyer pour définir les divers stades du développement du concept de soi nous paraît plus approprié. Ces deux auteurs nous serviront donc de guide dans la présentation du processus de développement du concept de soi au cours de la vie.

Il ne sera pas possible de décrire toutes les modifications du concept de soi qu'amène l'âge. Cette analyse du développement tente d'être une vision globale de chacun des stades choisi en mesurant l'impact du vêtement dans le processus de développement du concept de soi.

Les phases identifiées par l'Écuyer dans le développement du concept de soi sont:

0 à 2 ans : L'émergence de soi
2 à 5 ans : La confirmation de soi
5 à 10-12 ans : L'expansion de soi
10 à 12 ans : La différentiation de soi
15 à 18 ans
20 à 60 ans : La maturité adulte
60 à 100 ans : Le soi vieillissant

Selon cet auteur, le concept de soi évolue avec le temps, même chez les personnes âgées que l'on a parfois tendance à croire cristallisées dans leur image d'elle-même. Les dénominations utilisées par l'auteur demeurent arbitraires et critiquables et il faut les considérer comme points de repères.

Le stade de 0 à 2 ans
L'émergence de soi

L'aspect dominant du stade de l'émergence de soi est la distinction progressive entre ce qui est soi et ce qui ne l'est pas (soi-non-soi). L'enfant apprend à distinguer son corps, de ce tout qui ne l'est pas. Les nombreuses expériences de sensations corporelles internes (tension-faim-soif-etc.) contribuent également à la formation et à la diversification graduelle d'une image corporelle de plus en plus stable et mieux identifiée.

Bien qu'au stade de 0 à 2 ans l'enfant soit peu concerné par le vêtement, les adultes qui l'entourent le sont, pour des raisons sociales. Et, en même temps que l'image corporelle se structure, d'autres plus intérieures *émergent* subitement et se traduiront plus tard par la sensation d'être aimé.

Comme le signale Erikson (1968), les bébés sont sensibles et vulnérables .... «Nous devons veiller à livrer à leur sens des stimuli .... avec l'intensité convenable et au moment voulu» (p. 94). Ce stade identifié par Stone comme le «préplay stage» fait dire à Kaiser qu'il est bien possible que la façon de traiter un bébé puisse varier selon l'apparence même du bébé.

Les parents et leurs proches feront bien de porter une attention particulières à leurs réactions face à un poupon. L'enfant beau et bien vêtu provoque plus de sourires et de gestes affectueux que l'enfant confiné à son berceau uniquement vêtu de sa couche et d'une camisole. De plus si on place un bébé de 5 ou 6 mois devant un miroir, on peut observer la montée de l'attention qu'il porte à lui-même.

> A child also begins to internalize the reactions of others to his or her appearance. (Kaiser, 1985, p. 104)

Des échanges vocaux, des signes d'appréciation, des mimiques d'admiration sont autant de petits actes sociaux susceptibles de jouer un rôle de catalyseur dans le processus *d'émergence de soi.*

L'étape de 2 ans à 5 ans
La confirmation de soi

L'état actuel des recherches, mentionne l'Écuyer, semble faire ressortir qu'une fois, les premières bases du concept de soi, vaguement émergées, une phase d'implantation, de consolidation ou *de confirmation de soi* apparaît. C'est d'ailleurs à cette période, que l'enfant utilise peu à peu le «je-moi-mien». Vers trois ou quatre ans, l'enfant connaît les parties de son corps et les articles de vêtement qui y correspondent. Il prend conscience aussi que les autres possèdent les mêmes, c'est le soi possessif. Il apprend également à cet âge qu'il y a deux sexes et il identifie celui dans lequel il se situe. Le vêtement l'aide à identifier le sexe des autres ainsi que les rôles qui s'y rattachent. Il n'est que d'observer des enfants dans leurs comportements imitatifs (chapeaux de cowboy-talons hauts, etc.). Fréquents entre trois et cinq ans, ces imitations et ces jeux de rôles sont beaucoup plus que des activités ludiques car ils traduisent à la fois, le besoin de s'identifier à des individus et le besoin de s'en différencier davantage, preuve du désir de structuration d'une plus grande identité de soi.

En plus de ces comportements, l'enfant manifeste son individualité à travers le négativisme. C'est le début de la communication avec les autres enfants en garderie ou avec le voisinage qui témoigne de l'élaboration progressive d'une sensation plus solide du soi. Les parents ne doivent pas restreindre leurs enfants dans leurs jeux de peur qu'ils se salissent. L'expérience de jouer à divers jeux avec les autres enfants est importante.

C'est également l'âge où l'enfant commence à s'habiller seul; ils serait judicieux de lui choisir des vêtements qui lui facilite la tâche et qui lui sont familiers. Une trop grande lenteur ou trop de difficultés pour s'habiller causent souvent l'insécurité et l'anxiété. Les réactions des autres influencent son sentiment de valeur personnelle: les couleurs et les décorations attirent l'attention des adultes; souvent les enfants qui ne réussissent pas à attirer l'attention sur eux-mêmes le font par leurs vêtements. Nous avons tous entendu un jour un enfant dire à un adulte: «regarde mes nouvelles mitaines!» (ou autres). Cette façon de faire attire généralement des commentaires positifs et procure une satisfaction à l'enfant.

Bref, les réactions de l'entourage de l'enfant face à ses comportements se répercutent sur l'élaboration de la sensation de valeur personnelle, de compétence, de capacité, etc. Cette sécurité de base, *la confiance en soi* est absolument nécessaire pour permettre à l'enfant d'aller dans d'autres milieux avec une conscience plus nette de son propre soi.

En définitive, c'est l'étape où il est permis d'assister à l'élaboration des bases du concept de soi par la construction du sens de l'identité.

Etape de 5 à 10-12 ans
L'expansion de soi

En allant à l'école, l'enfant évolue dans un milieu vraiment différent. Les points de référence s'élargissent, il découvre petit à petit la possibilité d'intégrer de nouvelles expériences et de nouer de nouvelles relations interpersonnelles ainsi que de nouveaux modèles d'adultes. Toute la vie scolaire apporte à l'enfant de nouveaux environnements à l'intérieur desquels il doit apprendre à situer et qu'il doit situer en lui.

C'est pourquoi, cette période est appelée la période *d'expansion de soi* de

Kaiser (1985) semble dire que le vêtement devient important pour le développement émotionnel et social de l'enfant (p. 49).

Le besoin de conformité relié à cet âge s'accentue. Il pourrait même s'installer un sentiment d'infériorité ou d'insécurité chez l'enfant qui n'est pas vêtu comme ses amis-es. Ryan conseille même aux parents de faire les achats vestimentaires en compagnie de l'enfant. D'ailleurs, Erikson (1968) également parle du danger du développement d'une sentiment d'infériorité à ce stade de l'enfance et l'Écuyer nous signale que l'enfant vit à ce stade une période intense qui se répercutera sur l'acceptation ou la non acceptation de soi (p. 120).

Les perceptions de soi se traduisent en termes de capacités, d'aptitudes, de qualités, de défauts, de goûts, d'intérêts, d'images sociales, de ce qui est bons, ce ce qui est mauvais, de compétence, d'incompétence. Ces nombreuses expériences ont pour conséquence une valorisation positive ou négative du soi.

La manière dont sont dirigées les recherches ne permet pas d'évaluer l'apparition progressive de contenus nouveaux, de distinctions et nuances nouvelles au cours du développement du concept de soi. Toutefois, il ressort des travaux de l'Écuyer, réalisés avec des groupes d'enfants de trois à huit ans que l'enfant se valorise par ses possessions et celles de ses parents, par le nombre d'amis qu'il possède, par les activités différentes qu'il réalise et finalement par ses réussites et ses échecs. Il semble toutefois y avoir des différences de perceptions selon les sexes. Les filles se décrivent en termes de rôles et de statuts tandis que chez les garçons la description de soi se situe au niveau de perceptions plus secondaires. Le vêtement peut ici jouer un rôle en terme de satisfaction ou d'insatisfaction de soi et comme l'enfant a peur d'être rejeté par ses pairs, il importe que les styles de vêtements qu'ils portent soient acceptables aux yeux des autres, donc à peut près similaires. C'est un facteur souvent remarqué par les enseignants, un problème pour les parents, et qui ne laisse pas de faire subsister des séquelles chez l'enfant.

> .... that children may develop self consciousness and feelings of inferiority from having to wear clothes considered different by the other children in his group (Young in Ryan, 1966, p. 234).

> A well dress child is more self-confident, better mannered and less rowdy than a poorly dress one. (Hurlock in Ryan, 1966, p. 235)

Ces deux citations font remonter en moi le souvenir d'une robe de dentelle marine au col blanc que ma mère, avec goût et dextérité, m'avait confectionnée pour la Fête-Dieu. Cependant, j'éprouve encore un pincement au coeur au souvenir des belles robes rouges et blanches que portaient alors mes deux soeurs et de ma robe marine à moi. Sans affirmer que cet événement a freiné mon développement, je crois qu'il y a là encore une blessure que je n'ai jamais oubliée. Pourquoi cette différence?

Cette anecdote tend à confirmer une étude de Hunt rapportée par Ryan.

> All children from 3 to 10 preferred the saturated colors and those of light or medium brightness .... (Hunt dans Ryan, 1966, p. 232).

De plus, Hardy (1937) a démontré que les beaux vêtements n'influencent pas seulement le comportement de l'enfant lui-même, mais également le comportement dans autres (p. 235). Qu'il nous soit permis de penser que les sous-vêtements serrés qu'on faisait autrefois porter aux filles vers dix ou douze pouvaient non seulement freiner les mouvements de leurs muscles, mais aussi leur spontanéité et dans un certain sens le développement. Une telle analogie bien qu'intuitive, n'est peut-être pas tellement loin de la vérité.

Par ailleurs, en jetant un coup d'oeil sur le revers de la médaille, il faut noter que plusieurs auteurs mentionnent l'aspect négatif des vêtements luxueux et trop à la mode. Déjà en 1938, Young et Myers (1931) indiquaient que l'enfant qui portait des tels vêtements peut devenir snob et trop confiant en lui-même et ainsi se penser supérieur aux autres, ce qui risquerait de le rendre moins populaire et causer chez lui des difficultés d'adaptation sociale.

Bref, à cet âge, plusieurs expériences exigeront de l'enfant des réajustements en regard de l'auto-perception déjà existante et l'intégration de perceptions nouvelles.

L'étape de l'adolescence
(10-12 à 15-18 ans)
La différenciation de soi

Tous les auteurs, dit l'Écuyer, s'entendent pour parler de la reformulation de soi, de différenciation du soi (Jersild, 1952; Strong, 1957; B. Zazzo, 1972; etc.). Ryan (1966), toutefois, divise cette étape en deux stades, elle parle de «early adolescent» (douze à quinze ans) et de «adolescent» (quinze ou vingt ans). Quoiqu'il en soit, les deux auteurs s'entendent pour dire qu'il s'agit de la période de développement entre l'enfance et l'âge adulte et que ce stade coïncide avec des changements physiologiques et émotionnels.

L'accumulation d'expériences toujours plus nombreuses, l'approche de responsabilités d'adultes obligent l'individu à une formulation plus complète de soi. Et, tel qu'Erikson (1959) le dit si éloquemment, «c'est seulement ici un problème de recherche d'identité, la plus profonde possible» (dans l'Écuyer, 1978, p. 149).

Les transformations du corps de l'adolescent provoquent chez lui de nombreuses préoccupations somatiques; traits et apparence, harmonie des proportions, force, virilité, féminité sont autant de facteurs à accepter et à intégrer pour une adaptation valable.

> Cette intégration de l'image corporelle contribue à la valorisation de soi ainsi qu'à l'affermissement du sens d'identité. (L'Écuyer, 1978, p. 150)

Le désir d'autonomie s'accompagne du développement de traits et de comportements personnalisés et distincts des adultes qui l'entourent. Dans sa recherche de lui-même, l'adolescent s'identifie à des groupes de pairs. En plus, d'avoir un effet de sécurisation interne, cette identification joue un rôle de renforcement de sa propre identité.

On pense, on agit, on s'habille comme le groupe. A ce stade, une satisfaction ou une insatisfaction à l'égard du vêtement a probablement plus d'emprise sur les émotions et les actions qu'à toute autre période de la vie. L'insécurité manifeste rend les garçons et les filles très vulnérables aux critiques qui recherchent souvent par leurs comportements vestimentaires, approbation et acceptation.

Ryan mentionne que plusieurs recherches confirment les humiliations ressenties par les adolescents vêtus de vêtements non conformes à ceux de leur groupe.

Mon expérience de mère et d'enseignante me permet de signaler que bien des jeunes du secondaire se privent de certains divertissements faute de posséder les vêtements appropriés.

Une petite note adressée à une amie, trouvée sous un pupitre d'une élève me confirme le sentiment de sécurité et de confiance que peur provoquer le vêtement à celle qui le porte et s'y sent à l'aise.

Sans parler de délinquence, il est permis de penser que l'absence de vêtements qui lui plaisent pourrait parfois conduire l'adolescent à une certaine déviance.

> The imitation of clothing behavior is a direct and tangible means of identifying oneself with a model person or referent group: this not only facilitates the learning of new sociol-roles, but becomes an important process in the formation of the concept of self (Horn, 1968, p. 95).

Des travaux identifiés par l'Écuyer (1978) (Long, Ziller et Henderson, 1968; Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965) permettent de dégager des relations étroites entre l'estime de soi et une foule d'autres variables, dont les perceptions des parents, des professeurs, des pairs, démontrent bien l'importance du rôle de l'autre dans la conquête de son identité personnelle et dans l'organisation progressive d'un concept de soi personnel.

Dans ce cheminement vers l'approbation de son identité, la référence à des modèles devient un moyen d'actualiser ces changements. Etre bien dans sa peau, c'est non seulement se préoccuper de son corps, c'est valoriser son intériorité, cest s'engager face à soi-même et face au mode.

Il ne faut pas s'étonner des fluctuations au plan des perceptions de soi, en termes de consistance, d'idéologie, de rôle, de statut, c'est qu'il y a ambivalence entre dépendance et autonomie.

A mesure que l'adolescent parvient à un concept de lui-même plus stable, plus cohérent, plus sécurisant, plus personnalisé, cela se reflète par un comportement vestimentaire plus exclusif, plus personnel. Ceci ne signifie pas pour autant que le concept de soi ainsi développé au cours des vingt premières années de la vie est désormais une réalité immuable.

Il faut savoir décoder les styles des jeunes, car une telle lecture facilitera le discernement de leurs propres valeurs et leur langage, au-delà des limites du mode d'expression choisi et du comportement vestimentaire.

L'étape de 20 à 60 ans
La maturité adulte Reformulation de soi

Sans nier les différences observées dans les implications psychologiques en regard du vêtement, Ryan (1966) déplore l'absence de recherches et, conséquemment, observe un mutisme complet sur cette période de la vie.

Fort heureusement, des travaux récents permettent de penser qu'on commence à franchir la barrière de la période des vingt années. Ainsi l'Écuyer (1978) nous informe que plusieurs écrits obligent à reconsidérer la théorie du développement qu'il s'agisse de ceux de Bervien (1964), de Bischof (1969), de Broomley (1969), de Chown (1972), de Neugarten (1968), ou de Rosenberg (1970), etc. Ces chercheurs ont noté des modifications sur les structures de la personnalité durant la vie adulte. Il est donc faux de prétendre que l'évolution de l'adulte ne connaît plus le même dynamisme que celui des années précédentes.

Le domaine du concept de soi devrait logiquement suivre la même tendance. Bien que la signification réelle de l'évolution du concept de soi reste obscure à l'âge adulte, «il reste possible dit l'Écuyer, d'au moins mettre en lumière les zones de changements et événements se produisant à cette période de la vie».

Tout ceci peut être l'objet de reformulations périodiques, pour ne citer que l'adaptation à une profession ou un changement de carrière, à un mariage ou un remariage, à la maternité, à la paternité, aux succès, aux échecs. Ces actions peuvent entraîner des réflexions sur soi. De plus, souvent, des variations dans l'état de santé obligent à reconsidérer son image corporelle. L'importance des rôles à jour dans la société et au travail fait souvent fluctuer l'identité de soi.

A tous ces égards, le vêtement contribue beaucoup à confirmer à soi et aux autres qui on est et comment on se perçoit, aide à développer et à maintenir la notion de *qui on est*.

> Because clothing and personal appearance are important factors in the impressions formed by others about us, these aspects of appearance indirectly influence our conceptions of self. (Kaiser, 1985, p. 92)

A ce stade, le degré d'estime de soi est influencé par les variables déjà citées et d'autres, telles que la valeur psychologique de divers rôles sociaux, le degré d'intégration dans la société souvent manifesté par le respect des normes vestimentaires. Pour plusieurs auteurs, dit l'Écuyer, Back, Bergen (1968), Bischof (1969), Henry (1968), Neugarten (1972), les années situées entre quarante et cinquante ans constitueraient une véritable plaque tournante quant à un ensemble de transformations au sein de la personnalité et, de ce fait, au niveau du concept de soi.

> De façon générale, il y aurait à l'âge adulte, focalisation maximum sur *l'extérieur à soi*, sur le social. Ce système serait progressivement remplacé entre les années 50 et 60 par une centralisation plus grande sur les processus intérieurs, ce dernier processus s'accentuant davantage ensuite avec l'âge. (L'Écuyer, 1978, p. 154)

Il ne semble pas que l'on puisse affirmer que la diminution de l'extime de soi après quarante ans soit seulement due à un désengagement *social* graduel. Peut-être s'agit-il là d'interrogations sur ses compétences, sur ses capacités physiques ou ses succès plus ou moins relatifs. Mon expérience de vie m'amène à penser que les nouveaux défis que l'on tente de relever, nous fournissent souvent des réponses positives à toutes les interrogations qui surviennent à cet âge. Cependant, après avoir admis que l'amélioration de l'intellect est supérieure et que les lacunes physiologiques peuvent être compensées par l'élégance et le bon goût, il y a de fortes chances que le concept de soi continue d'être positif. Le souci de créativité et d'esthétique compense pour une large part une image corporelle moins satisfaisante et augmente l'estime de soi. De là à conclure que le rythme de croissance est peut-être plus évolutif que le rythme de décroissance, il n'y a qu'un pas.

Des recherches effectuées à partir de 4 strates de population:

> Groupe de jeunes niveaux «high school»;
> Groupe de nouveaux mariés;
> Groupe d'adultes;
> Groupe d'âge moyen;
> Groupe d'adultes à l'âge de la préretraite;

ont permis d'observer des variations croissantes ou décroissantes selon les types de caractéristiques du concept de soi (Cherebaga et Thurnber (1975); l'Écuyer, 1978, p. 156).

De façon générale, les auteurs notent l'apparition des changements suivants avec l'âge:

> Sensation d'efficacité accrue;
> Relations interpersonnelles plus positives;
> Augmentation de la confiance en soi;
> Augmentation du contrôle de soi et, par ailleurs, il y croissance de la conscience de ses limites.

Ces travaux devraient inspirer les prochaines recherches vers une approche multi-dimensionnelle de ce qu'est le concept de soi; c'est-à-dire un modèle selon les types de caractéristiques du concept de soi.

Pour ma part, je crois que l'amélioration du concept de soi entre quarante et soixante ans sera égal aux efforts qui seront déployés pour l'amélioration de ses connaissances.

Le concept de soi des personnes âgées de 60 ans et plus

La popularité de cette science qu'est la gérontologie a engendré des nouvelles recherches. A ce chapitre figure les études conduites au niveau des perceptions.

Cependant, d'importants problèmes surgissent dans l'étude du concept de soi (difficultés d'études longitudinales, échantillonnage non stable, instruments pertinents).

Dans la description du processus évolutif, l'Écuyer fait ressortir la conviction générale des chercheurs sur l'évolution positive, des sujets jusqu'aux environs de quarante ans, de l'existence d'une plaque tournante entre quarante et cinquante et de l'amorce d'une évolution négative voir même d'un déclin grandissant avec l'âge. Vu sous cet angle, il est évident que le développement du concept de soi prend une orientation négative. Ces énoncés contribuent à alimenter la réflexion sur la signification dynamique de l'évolution du concept de soi reconnu comme théoriquement stable à l'âge adulte.

L'achat de vêtements, hélas, contribue à confirmer cette orientation négative, suite à l'absence de styles de vêtements, non adaptés aux changements du squelette à cet âge. L'agilité des muscles, l'acuité visuelle diminuant aussi, il arrive que les personnes âgées doivent souvent sacrifier l'esthétique pour le pratique et il s'ensuit souvent une insatisfaction, une diminution de confiance en soi et destime de soi chez elles.

Les variables pour l'analyse de l'estime de soi étant différentes, il semble impossible de dégager des généralités.

> Il est cependant admis que la période entre soixante-quatre et soixante-neuf ans constitue une période de bouleversement, du moins chez l'homme, au moins pour la raison de la mise à la retraite. (L'Écuyer, 1978, p. 161).

La manière de percevoir la retraite peut jouer beaucoup entre soixante et soixante-dix ans; mais une fois les mécanismes d'adaptation enclenchés, on serait porté à croire qu'il pourrait y avoir dans certains cas une surestimation de soi.

Est-il possible de penser qu'un changement de la perception sociale face à la personne âgée pourra influer sur sa propre perception?

De façon instinctive, on pourrait croire que la diminution de sociabilité pourrait augmenter l'introversion. Il faut cependant se raviser en connaissant les résultats des travaux de Kalish (1975) qui paraissent presque aberrants.

> .... Ainsi les personnes plus âgées et retirées présenteraient une plus grande force de l'égo, projetteraient moins leur hositilité, montreraient moins de défenses obsessionnelles, seraient plus ouvertes et plus confiantes envers les autres .... seraient plus libres d'anxiété manifeste, moins impulsives, etc. (L'Écuyer, 1978, p. 163)

Ce n'est pas là du tout l'image habituelle qu'on se fait du petit vieux en train de dépérir, et ce n'est certainement pas conforme aux stéréotypes sociaux que l'on a sur le concept de soi des personnes âgées.

Discutant du souci qu'ont les personnes âgées pour les vêtements et leur apparence en général, Kernaleguen (1980) affirme que d'être bien vêtues pour elles contribue à remonter leur moral, à augmenter leur assurance en soi et à influencer leur acceptation sociale. Hoffman (1979) va plus loin et qualifie cette attention de message psychologique important ajoutant que les vêtements nouveaux et «à la mode» démontrent une pensée orientée vers le futur plutôt que vers le passé.

Sans une rechreche effectuée sur les personnes âgées en relation avec le concept de soi, on constate que chez ce groupe de personnes les relations sociales influencent le concept de soi et vice versa.

> ...the older person who feels that his appearance is acceptable is more likely to participate socially and, as he makes new friends and keeps in touch with old ones, his concept of himself is more positive (Davis 1962 in Ryan, 1966, p. 316).

Cette réflexion incite à penser que l'absence d'une garde-robe convenable pour des raisons d'ordre économique ou autres pourrait favoriser l'isolement et le repli sur soi.

Par ailleurs, malgré certains déclins et pertes, il est étonnant de constater combien certaines septuagénaires se découvrent des talents de leadership jusque là inconnus. Il s'agit dans plusieurs cas de leur confier des responsabilités et l'on a vit constaté que tout est loin d'être négatif et déficitaire chez les personnes "agées.

Conclusion

Voilà ce qui ressort de cette tentative de tracer le développement du concept de soi en relation avec le comportement vestimentaire. Théoriquement du moins, le vêtement joue une part relativement importante pour évaluer le concept de soi et, inversement, le concept de soi influence le choix du vêtement. Pour chaque type de concept de soi, il serait possible de donner des exemples qui illustreraient l'importance du vêtement. On pourrait même émettre l'hypothèse suivante: que moins le concept de soi est favorable et positif, plus grand est le besoin d'être vêtu de façon attrayante.

A la lumière de nos lectures, il ne fait pas de doute que la question du concept de soi évolue. Son cheminement est complexe et variable; ces images ou perceptions du soi ou du moi sont reliées les unes aux autres; les définir en termes de stades demeurera toujours un exercice difficile à accomplir. Ce sera tout aussi difficile d'établir un caractère d'unicité à ce vecteur du développement qui selon nous, comportera toujours une notion multidimensionnelle. ☐

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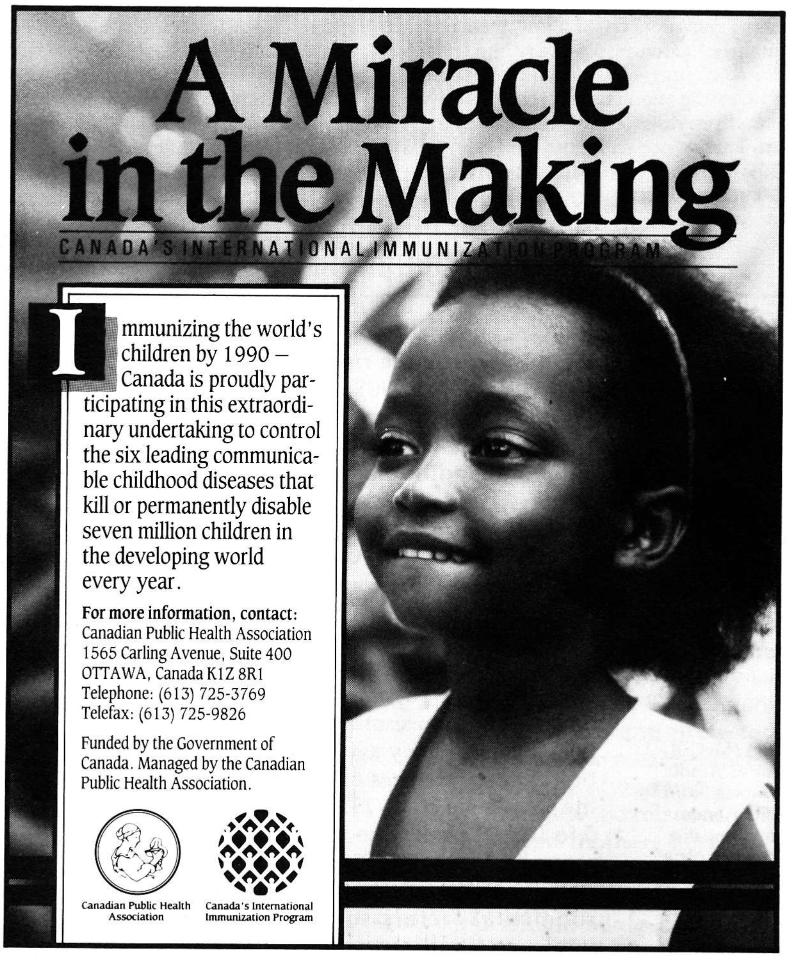
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Research Section

Calcium Intake and Knowledge of Osteoporosis in University Women

Alison Davidson Bogan and Kimberlee Barro DeWare

Abstract

The objective of this study was to examine calcium intake and knowledge of osteoporosis and its prevention in university women. A random sample of 94 university women living in residence completed one day food records and a short questionnaire. The majority of these students were knowledgeable about osteoporosis, although only one third were concerned about their personal risk. Mean dietary intake of calcium was 1210 mg/day, well above the 800 to 1000 mg/day suggested as being sufficient to achieve peak bone mass in young women. Milk was readily available in the dining halls and provided an average of 918 mg of calcium per day to milk drinkers. Mean daily intake of calcium of non-milk drinkers was 351 mg. Nutrition education may be most productively focussed on non-milk drinkers with emphasis on alternative food sources of calcium.

Résumé

Le but de cette étude était d'examiner, la consommation de calcium ainsi que leur connaissance de l'ostéoporose et de sa prévention, chez les femmes universitaires. Un échantillonage de leur alimentation d'une journée, accompagné d'un questionnaire, a été réalisé auprès de 94 étudiantes vivant en résidences universitaires. La majorité de ces jeunes étudiantes avaient une certaine connaissance sur l'ostéoporose, bien que seulement le tiers se questionnaient sur leur risque personnel. Leur moyenne de consommation quotidienne de calcium était de 1210 mg, ce qui est supérieur à la dose quotidienne suggérée de 800 à 1000 mg pour obtenir une condition osseuse adéquate chez les jeunes femmes. Le lait était disponible à volonté dans les salles à manager et procurait une moyenne quotidienne de 918 mg de calcium était de 351 mg chez les non-buveurs de lait. L'éducation nutritionnelle, auprès des non-buveurs de lait, devrait être accentuée sur les aliments ayant un bon apport de calcium.

Osteoporosis is estimated to affect more than 250,000 Canadians, primarily elderly women, reducing their quality of life and increasing health care costs (Harrison, 1986). While risk factors like advancing age, female gender, and genetics are uncontrollable, dietary intake and activity levels are environmental factors which are controllable and are considered important strategies to decrease the risk of osteoporosis (Anderson, 1990). Achieving the genetically determined maximum or peak bone mass (PBM) in adolescence and young adulthood may delay the onset of osteoporosis caused by age-related bone loss (National Research Council, U.S., 1989). Garn, Rohmann, and Wagner (1967) concluded that the best natural protection against the results of age-related bone loss was to enter middle age with a large skeletal mass. Work in Yugoslavia demonstrated the importance of attaining a high peak bone mass by age 30 as a protection against fractures of the hip in later life (Matkovic et al., 1979). As much as 5 to 10% of peak bone mass in women may be accrued during the age decades of the 20's and 30's, and environmental factors such as calcium intake and body weight may have a greater impact than genetic factors on the quantity of mineral deposited during bone mass consolidation in early adulthood (Tvlavsky, Bortz, Hancock, & Anderson, 1989).

PBM appears to be related to the level of calcium intake during the years of mineralization of the bone (National Research Council, U.S., 1989). A number of studies have assessed the relationship between calcium or dairy product intake and bone mass in women. Women who reported consuming 800 to 1000 mg per day of calcium during adolescence or young adulthood were found to have indices of bone density significantly higher than those who consumed lesser amounts (Matkovic et al., 1979; Picard et al., 1988; Kanders, Dempster, & Lindsay, 1988). Two other studies showed a positive relationship between higher dairy product consumption during the 20's and bone

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Note: This research was conducted at Acadia University between January and March 1987 in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Honours thesis by Kimberlee Ann Barro.

density (Sandler et al., 1985; Halioua & Anderson, 1989). Hogan and Whiting (1987), however, failed to show a correlation between childhood milk consumption and bone density. Angus, Sambrook, Pocock, and Eisman (1988) found a correlation between milk consumption in early life and forearm bone density, but not with femoral neck or vertebral density in postmenopausal women.

The concept of a maximum or threshold effect of nutrition on PBM with little further gain in skeletal mass being achieved by intakes of nutrients which exceed the threshold has been proposed by Recker and Heaney (1989).Kanders et al. (1988) and Halioua and Anderson (1989) reported no advantage in gain in bone density when calcium intakes exceeded 800 to 1000 mg/day. The majority of the studies support the view that a dietary intake of 800 to 1000 mg of calcium/day in young adulthood is consistent with attainment of PBM in women.

Variables other than dietary calcium may influence body calcium and bone status. Vitamin D, protein, and phosphorus are all recognized as exerting important effects on calcium metabolism and bone formation (Anderson, 1990). Angus et al. (1989) reported a weak correlation between current intake of iron, magnesium, and zinc and forearm bone mineral content and of iron and femoral neck (hip) bone mineral content in premenopausal women. A high body mass index (BMI) has been associated with increased bone mass, possibly through the stress placed on the bone by the extra weight, a mechanism similar to physical activity, or through higher amounts of estrogen produced in the adipose tissue (National Research Council, U.S., 1989).

Female university students are of concern in the effort to reduce risk of eventual development of osteoporosis. This population tends to skip meals and to consume low energy diets because of time pressures, or in an attempt to lose or maintain weight (Hernon, Skinner, Andrews & Penfield, 1986). A low BMI coupled with low food intake and low calcium intake could theoretically put university students at risk of not achieving their genetically determined peak bone mass.

The study reported here was designed to examine the level of knowledge of osteoporosis and the dietary intakes of young women who lived in university housing and who had contracted for 10 to 21 meals per week in the dining halls. The study was conducted with the approval of the Ethics Committee of Acadia University.

Methods

Subjects

In early 1987, 200 randomly selected women students living in residence at a small university were invited to participate in the study. Of the 106 women who responded, 94 met the study's criteria for completion of all parts of the study, resulting in a response rate of 47%.

Procedure

Subjects were asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire, to provide a one day food record for a weekday, and to complete a food frequency check-list indicating the number of times per week they consumed major food sources of calcium. The questionnaire assessed the student's knowledge of osteoporosis and included questions about osteoporosis, nutrients and food sources associated with its prevention, other risk factors and their concern about developing osteoporosis. Students also reported their age, height, weight, concern about present weight, and dieting behavior. No instructions on measuring height or weight were given and it was assumed that height was reported without shoes.

For the food record, students were instructed to record everything eaten and drunk during a 24 hour period, describing the food, the amount eaten, the time and location of eating. Supplement use for the day reported was noted on the food record. The anonymous nature of the study precluded any checking of the completeness of the food record. The food frequency check-list was designed as a crosscheck on the food record. Estimates of weekly consumption of milk, cheese, yogurt, ice cream, broccoli, salmon, and sardines were requested. The dairy products were freely available in the dining halls. The questionnaire and food record were tested for clarity in an introductory foods class. Appropriate recommendations from this pretest group were incorporated into the final questionnaire.

Frequencies of answers to questions on knowledge of osteoporosis and biographical data were tabulated. BMI was calculated as kg/m^2 based on the self-reported heights and weights. The capacities of drinking glasses and bowls available in the dining hall were measured, and the recipes for mixed dishes and portions as served were provided by the food service manager. The food intake data were coded and analyzed using a program based on the 1986 Canadian Nutrient File. The calcium, iron, zinc, and vitamin D contributed by supplements were added manually. Daily caffeine intake was estimated manually using published values ("Caffeine", 1983). Calcium intakes as estimated by the food frequency check-list were calculated manually and used as a crosscheck of calcium intake derived from the food records. The food frequency list made no attempt to estimate consumption of milk- or cheese-containing dishes, resulting in an underestimate of calcium intake. Only the total of calcium provided by milk, cheese, yogurt, ice cream, broccoli, and salmon reported in the food record was used for the comparison of calcium intakes estimated by the two methods. The calcium provided by milk and by dairy products was estimated manually from the food records, and the difference between the sum of these two sources and total calcium intake was assumed to come from other food sources. Milk consumption as reported on the food record was examined, and any subject who derived less than 75 mg of calcium from milk was classified as a "non-milk" drinker. Statistics were calculated using the Minitab Statistical Package Version 7 and Mystat Version 2.1.

Results

Subjects

The mean age of the respondents was 20 years with 97% being between the ages of 17 and 25. Mean BMI value was 21.7 ± 2.8 with a range of 15.1 to 29.3. Twelve percent of the respondents were currently on a reducing diet.

Knowledge of Osteoporosis

Seventy-seven percent of respondents were familiar with the term osteoporosis; 78% and 82% respectively associated calcium and milk and dairy products with the prevention of osteoporosis. Seventy-two percent identified the age category of 50 plus years as the age at which symptoms of osteoporosis are likely to appear, while 25% thought the younger age category of 25 to 50 years was affected. Females were identified by 81% as the sex most prone to develop osteoporosis; the remaining 19% of respondents did not answer this question. Eighty-six percent identified the disorder as one which develops over a long time. Sources of information about osteoporosis included television (36%), magazines (29%), friends (23%), educators (19%), family (17%), newspaper (4%), radio (3%), and other (11%). When questioned about their concern about developing osteoporosis, 32% were concerned, 43% were not concerned, 21% were undecided, and 4% had insufficient information to make decision.

Dietary Intake

Energy, macronutrient, and caffeine intakes, estimated from the food records, are presented in Table 1. Mean intakes of protein, fat, and carbohydrate were respectively 16%, 34%, and 50% of mean energy. There was wide variability in the estimated intakes of caffeine. Thirty-seven per cent of respondents consumed no caffeine on the day reported.

Table 1. Means and ranges of energy, macronutrients and caffeine

Nutrient	Mean (SD)	Range
Energy (kcal)	1941 ± 694	380-4041
Protein (g)	78 ± 32	14-193
Fat (g)	75 ± 33	8-168
CHO (g)	244 ± 95	61-508
Caffeine (mg)	55 ± 68	0-316

Intakes of selected dietary and total (dietary plus supplements) minerals and vitamin D are presented in Table 2. Twenty-five subjects (27%) were routinely using supplements. Three of the fourteen subjects who took supplemental Vitamin D, two of the four who took supplemental calcium, and eight of the eleven who took supplemental iron had estimated dietary intakes of these nutrients lower than the RNI (Health and Welfare Canada [HWC], 1990) and may have benefited from the supplements. Mean intakes of Vitamin D, calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium exceeded the RNI whereas mean intakes of iron and zinc were below the RNI (HWC, 1990).

Table 2. Means and percentiles of dietary and total nutrients

Nutrient		Mean (SD)	Range	Percentile		
				25	50	75
Vitamin D (mcg)	D[a]	7.6 ± 5.1	0-25.6	2.9	7.0	11.2
	T[b]	9.1 ± 5.8	0-25.6	4.6	9.2	13.2
Minerals:						
Calcium (mg)	D	1210 ± 651	137-3658	714	1214	1610
	T	1225 ± 642	137-3658	714	1238	1610
Phosphorus (mg)	D	1503 ± 658	367-3896	1065	1516	1935
Iron (mg)	D	10.8 ± 3.7	2.0-22.3	8.0	10.4	13.4
	T	12.0 ± 5.9	2.0-37.3	8.0	11.3	14.1
Zinc (mg)	D	7.0 ± 3.7	0.6-17.9	4.5	6.4	9.3
	T	7.3 ± 4.8	0 6-36.5	4.5	6.5	11.2
Magnesium (mg)		204 ± 102	49-534	125	189	281

[a] Dietary intake
[b] Total intake (dietary intake plus supplement)

The frequency distribution of dietary calcium intake as estimated from the food records is shown in Figure 1. Sixty-seven subjects consumed more than 800 mg of dietary calcium. The 27 subjects who consumed less than 800 mg of dietary calcium included all the non-milk drinkers, only two of whom were taking calcium supplements.

Dietary sources of calcium for both milk drinkers (n = 80) and non-milk drinkers (n = 14) are categorized in Figure 2. The amount of calcium derived from milk ranged from 260 mg to 2890 mg for milk drinkers and 0 mg to 55 mg for non-milk drinkers. The mean dietary intake of calcium of milk drinkers was 1364 ± 580 mg, of which 918 mg (67%), 192 mg (14%), and 254 mg (19%) was derived from milk, dairy products, and other foods respectively. This mean intake was significantly higher (t = 6.424, p = .000) than the mean dietary intake of calcium of the non-milk drinkers, 351 ± 205 mg, of which 11 mg (3%), 115 mg (33%), and 225 mg (64%) was derived

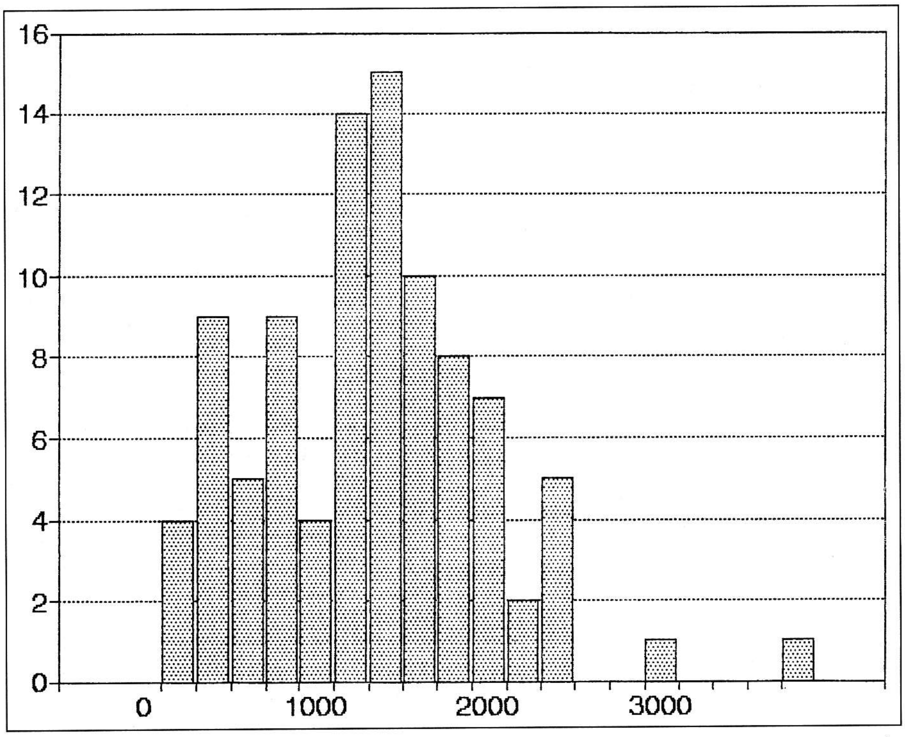

Figure 1. Frequency distribution of dietary calcium intakes derived from food records.

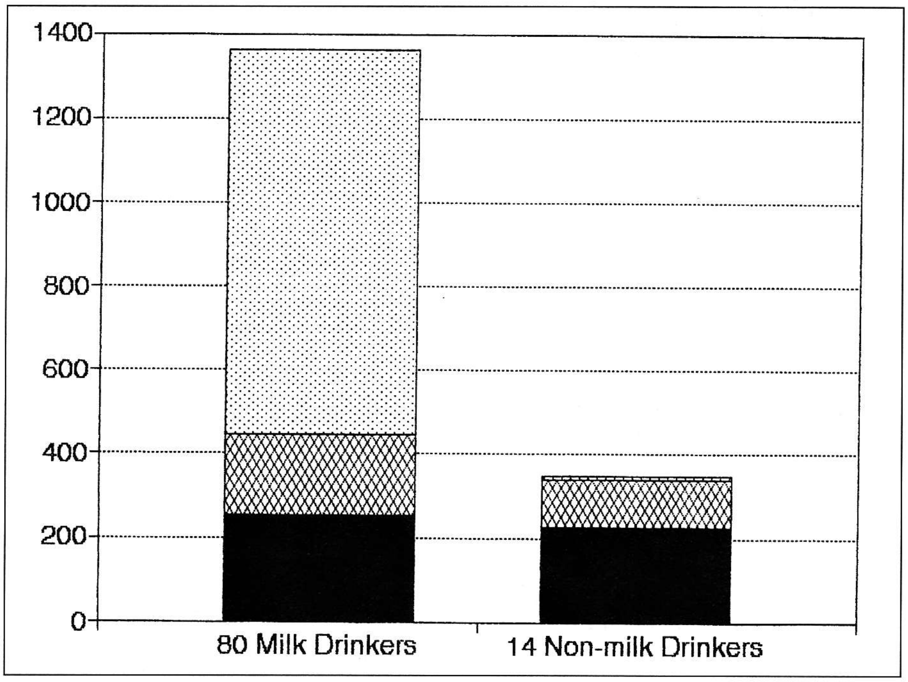

Figure 2. Mean dietary sources of calcium in milk drinkers and non-milk drinkers.

from milk, dairy products, and other foods respectively. When data for milk and non-milk drinkers were combined, milk provided 783 mg (65%), dairy products 180 mg (15%) and other foods 249 mg (20%) of mean dietary calcium.

The mean intakes of calcium derived from milk, cheese, yogurt, ice cream, broccoli, and salmon as estimated from the food intake record and the food frequency, 917 ± 600 mg and 916 ± 548 mg respectively, were remarkably similar. The differences were not significant when tested by a paired t-test ($t = 0.006$, $p = 0.995$). The calcium:phosphorus ratio estimated from the food record was 1:1.2.

Discussion

The majority of respondents were familiar with osteoporosis as a disorder affecting older women which developed over the long term. The finding that about 80% of the group associated calcium and dairy products with "prevention" of osteoporosis perhaps reflected promotion by the pharmaceutical and dairy industries. Only one third of this group were personally concerned about developing osteoporosis, perhaps not surprising considering the youth of the subjects.

Self-reported food intakes, especially of a single day and with no mechanism to probe for missing items, can provide only an approximation of usual intakes of nutrients for a group. However, the large sample size, and the availability of information on the standard size of portions usually served and recipes allowed a reasonable estimate of mean nutrient intake. The close agreement between mean calcium intake from selected foods as estimated by the food record and by the food frequency check-list gave additional confidence in the accuracy of the food record method.

The mean energy intake of 1941 kcals was similar to that found by Jakobvits, Halstead, Kelley, Roe, and Young (1977) and Gottschalk, Macaulay, Sawyer, and Miles (1977) but 300 kcals lower than that reported by O'Leary and Lee (1975) and 400 kcals higher than that reported by Bailey and Goldberg (1989) for university women.

Mean protein intake greatly exceeded the RNI (HWC, 1990). Questions have been raised about the calciuric effect of high animal protein intakes seen in the usual Canadian diet (HWC, 1990). Spencer, Kramer, and Osis (1988) concluded, however, that protein intake was not related to calcium loss under normal dietary conditions because of concurrent phosphorus content of the diet which offsets the effect of protein. The mean phosphorus intake in this study exceeded mean calcium intake.

Caffeine consumption has been reported to increase urinary calcium excretion (Heaney and Recker, 1982). Yano, Heilbrun, Wasnich, Hankin and Vogel (1985), however, found no correlation between caffeine intakes up to 750 mg/day and bone mineral content of the distal radius. Picard et al. (1988) also failed to show a relationship between caffeine intake and bone mass in premenopausal women. The modest intakes of caffeine reported in this study (maximum of 316 mg/day) would therefore not appear to be a risk factor in preventing attainment of peak bone mass.

Mean intakes of calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D (Table 2) exceeded the RNI (HWC, 1990). The calcium:phosphorus ratio of 1:1.2 was not of concern as Wardlaw (1988) concluded that typical dietary P intakes and Ca:P ratios were not related to bone loss under normal circumstances. Spencer et al. (1988) concluded that phosphorus intake of up to 2000 mg/day does not have adverse effects on calcium metabolism, although they warn that the phosphorus in soft drinks, commonly in the form of phosphoric acid may behave differently. As availability of carbonated beverages was unlimited in the dining halls, intakes from this source may be a cause for concern.

The mean calcium intake reported here was greater than the 1093 mg reported by O'Leary and Lee (1975), the 971 mg reported by Gottschalk et al. (1977), the 862 mg reported by Jakobovits et al. (1977), the 468 and 793 mg reported by Hernon et al. (1986), and the 785 mg reported by Hoffman (1989). The distribution of calcium intake as seen in Figure 1 confirms the generous calcium intake of the majority of this group. O'Leary and Lee (1975) found a significantly higher calcium intake in those students who lived in residence and had unlimited access to food and milk than in those who lived at home. The students in this study also had unlimited access to skim, 2%, and chocolate milk. Fluid milk contributed on average 785 mg or 65% of the total intake of calcium for the entire group, and 918 mg (67%) for the milk drinkers. Forster-Coull and Sabry (1986) also found that milk was the single most important source of calcium in the diet of young and older women. They reported that those women who stated that they liked or strongly liked milk had a significantly higher milk consumption than those who said they disliked milk or were neutral to it. It is speculated that when milk is freely available as was the case here, those young women who liked milk as a beverage drank enough to meet the recommended intake for calcium.

The contribution of dairy products such as cheese, yogurt, milk based desserts, and cheese-containing entrées was dependent on individual choices of the students as well as the menu of the day. Approximately 15% of the calcium consumed by the entire group was derived from such dairy products. Non-milk drinkers, who averaged only 115 mg of calcium from dairy products, did not appear to compensate for their lack of milk consumption by selection of other dairy products. In this study 80% of the calcium of the entire group was derived from milk and dairy products, a higher percentage than the 61 to 66% reported in the Nutrition Canada Survey (Health and Welfare Canada, 1977). Other food sources contributed the remaining 20% of the calcium for the entire group. They provided almost two-thirds of the calcium for the non-milk drinkers however.

Preliminary evidence has suggested that intakes of iron, zinc, and magnesium may also be important in maximizing bone mass (Angus et al., 1988). As seen in Table 2, the mean intakes of iron contributed by food alone failed to meet the recommended intakes for this age group and was lower than the 12 ± 7 mg reported by Hoffman (1989). Even with the use of nutrient supplements, the mean intake fell short. Zinc intakes also fell short of the RNI (HWC, 1990), and in this instance supplements added little to total intake. The 1986 Canadian Nutrient File does not contain complete data on the zinc content of foods, thus the actual intake may have been higher. Magnesium intakes were close to the RNI (HWC, 1990).

Conclusions

Among the 94 female students as living in residence, the majority perceived osteoporosis as a condition affecting older women. Most were not concerned about their personal risk. However their mean daily calcium intake of 1210 mg was well above the 800 to 1000 mg suggested as being necessary to attain optimal PBM. Milk was the most important source of calcium for the 80 subjects who consumed it and provided an average of 918 mg of calcium. University dining halls should have reasonable quantities of low fat milk available to students. The 14 non-milk drinkers in this study did not compensate by increased consumption of dairy products and only two took supplemental calcium. Nutrition education should be focussed on this group. Emphasis may be placed on the contribution of calcium in achieving PBM in young adulthood and of the importance of optimizing PBM as one strategy to reduce the risk of developing osteoporosis in later life. Information should emphasize alternative food sources of calcium, and menu planners should be encouraged to offer such foods in forms readily acceptable to students. These conclusions are restricted to female students who live in residence. Further information about students who live off campus is required to determine appropriate nutrition education strategies for them. ☐

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family and Consumer Studies

The long shadow of marital conflict: A model of children's postdivorce adjustment.

Kline, M., Johnston, J., and Tschann, J. (1991)
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 53, 297-309.

Consistent findings indicate that marital conflict affects parent-child relationships and that these children are more prone to emotional and behavioral disorders. The purpose of this study is to extend a previous model of family adaptation by examining some of the same relationships longitudinally, over a two-year period after parental filing for divorce. The study utilized a process model to examine how family relationships both before and after divorce are linked to children's subsequent emotional and behavioral adjustment.

Participants in this longitudinal study were members of 184 divorcing families living in a suburban county in the San Francisco Bay Area. At the beginning of the study, parents had been separated. Participants were mostly white and well-educated. The sample baseline used the oldest child in each family; children ranged between 2 and 18 years.

Variables for this study were derived from one of three sources: questionnaires completed by parents at baseline, standard measures completed by parents at follow-ups, or clinical ratings completed at all three assessment periods. Plan analysis was utilized to test a hypothesized model. A series of simultaneous multiple-regression equations were calculated. Path analysis indicated that marital conflict was directly related to poorer child emotional adjustment and was indirectly related, one year after divorce, through mother-child relationships. Marital conflict was indirectly related to child behavior problems through poorer mother-child relationships and interparental conflict one year after divorce. Characteristics of the child and of the family social structure contributed to the child's postdivorce outcome.

The findings in this study are similar to those of previous studies using intact families. This suggests that there are family processes that influence child development regardless of parents' marital status.

Illusions and ignorance about the family-responsive workplace.

Kingston, Paul W. (1990)
Journal of Family Issues, 11(4), 438-454.

This article acknowledges the difficulties people experience when trying to combine work and family lives but presents an argument suggesting that it is illusory to think that business has been as responsive to employees' family needs like the media and anecdotal literature suggest. In this literature analysis it is proposed that advocates of the family friendly workplace have overestimated business's response and that they have unrealistic hopes for future family responsiveness.

After identifying the weaknesses in past research pertaining to work-family needs and provisions, this article criticizes 3 of the advocate's central arguments. One claim that is argued is the "policies enhance worker productivity by reducing stress, improving morale, and changing behaviours such as absenteeism" belief. Another argued claim is the "policies are an increasingly necessary recruitment tool in the face of impending labour shortages" claim. Finally, the "social responsibility of business" is investigated and criticized.

To conclude, not only are weaknesses in the organization-profamily argument considered but the author also predicts an uneven realization of the responsive workplace in the future.

Adolescent evening meal practices and attitudes toward the maternal role in evening meal preparation.

Hebert, K.A., and Jacobson, A.L. (1991)
Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 15 (3), 249-259.

Past research has indicated that the evening meal patterns of many adolescents vary from the traditional, regularly scheduled family evening meal due to such events as work and school related activities of the adolescent. The purpose of this study was to determine whether maternal employment was a contributing factor to adolescent evening meal practices and to investigate the attitudes toward the maternal role in evening meal preparation.

The sample consisted of 494 male and 686 female (total 1180), grades 10-12 students, enrolled in home economics and health classes in a Dallas-Forth Worth suburban area. It was assumed that the students in these courses had some basic knowledge of healthy eating practices. Data was collected using The Teen Evening Meal Survey which had been designed and pretested by the primary researcher. Only weekday meal practices were included in the survey. Data were analyzed using a chi-square test of independence to determine the relationships between those with full-time employed mothers and non-employed mothers and the evening meal practices. One-way ANOVA was used to analyze the differences between the attitudes of the male and female adolescents and those whose mothers were employed and non-employed towards the maternal role in meal preparation.

Findings indicated that weekday evening meals were reported to be prepared by mothers more than half the time. Evidence was provided that maternal employment was a significant factor in adolescent evening meal practices. The number of evening meals prepared solely by the mother in the home differed significantly with more non-employed mothers than employed mothers fully preparing the week-day evening meal. A larger proportion of those who never fully prepare the week-day evening meal were from the employed mother group. Attitudes toward employed mother's role in meal preparation varied by gender. More adolescent females than males showed agreement with the statement that working mothers should not be fully responsible for evening meal preparation. More females than males disagreed with the statement that non-employed mothers should spend more time preparing the weekday evening meal.

Researchers suggest that some employed mothers have reallocated the responsibilities for evening meal preparation to husbands and children. Employed mothers are providing meals for adolescents but not every evening of the week. Future research should include dietary logs to further clarify the respondents concepts of balanced meals. Nutrition educators should consider education which meets the needs of dual earner families with a variety of lifestyles. The sex stereotyping of household tasks continues to need to be addressed.

Towards an integrative perspective on the housing, services and transport implications of rural aging.

Joseph, A.E., and Fuller, A.M. (1991)
Canadian Journal on Aging, 10(2), 127-147.

This paper considers the implications of population aging in rural communities in Ontario with specific reference to housing, services, and transportation. The authors' intentions are to advance a integrative view of these particular issues for an aging rural population. The paper is divided into four parts which consider the distinctive characteristics of the aging process in rural regions, the present knowledge base regarding the links between housing, services, and transportation for the aged in rural communities, an integrative framework is proposed, and a set of policy proposals are suggested.

The authors contend that past attempts to gauge the differences between urban and rural populations have been hampered by a simplistic view of rurality. There currently exists a lack of understanding of the aging process in the rural context, as well the participation of the elderly in larger community systems is not understood and the population of rural seniors is heterogeneous in nature. These factors are significant in investigating the type and location of housing, services, and transportation for the rural elderly.

The knowledge base of housing, services, and transportation are reviewed. Researchers find the rural elderly have a high degree of home ownership. A lack of variety in rural housing options exists. Broadened housing options for the elderly are provided by private and voluntary initiatives, not through deliberate public policy. Adequate knowledge of types of services available in particular communities and use rates exists. Quantity and quality of services vary widely between rural communities. There exists a lack of systematic information on the transportation situation in rural areas. Rural residents have a major dependence on private automobile use. Many older people gradually become increasingly transportation dependent on others when they can no longer drive. This dependence appears to be of more concern to the service providers than to seniors with "low mobility". It appears the seniors who are in an intermediate group are less advantaged in the three areas than young independent senior or older, dependent seniors.

Housing, services, and transportation for the rural elderly were shown to be interrelated. A model adapted from the work of Joseph and Poyner (1982) was developed which reflected the interconnectedness of the three areas. The model was explained linking the conceptualization with the literature. The model serves as the basis for future research. Authors pointed out that social policy needs to address the interconnectedness of the housing, services, and transport needs of the rural elderly. Successful interventions in these areas will continue to be problematic due to "market fragmentation". Innovative strategies for interventions should be as interdependent as the issues they address and interventions should be to be tailored to individual community needs.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Recent developments in product liability law in the U.S.A. Maggs, P.B. (1991). *Journal of Consumer Policy, 14* (1), 29-34.

Changing household formation patterns: Implications for consumption and nutrition. Perso, R.K., and Brandt, J.A. (1991). *Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 15* (1), 1-14.

Submitted by:
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Foods and Nutrition

Nutrition information needs during cardiac rehabilitation: Perceptions of the cardiac patient and spouse.

Montgomery, D.A., and Amos, R.J. (1991)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91, 1078-1083.

To provide insight into client concerns about the cardiac diet, a survey instrument was developed and administered at two hospital-based cardiac rehabilitation programs to 35 patients (28 men, 7 women) and 29 spouses (5 men, 24 women). The patient group was predominantly male (80%) while the spouse group was mainly female (83%). The self-administered questionnaire was designed using the core elements of the sense-making model — situations, gaps, and uses. Six situational states were described in the questionnaire with drawings depicting each state (moving, decision, being led, problematic, barrier, observing). Each statement describing an event that may create the context for lack of internal sense was rated using a 5-point numeric scale. Gaps in sense-making were measured by asking respondents how often they had asked similar questions, again using a 5-point scale. Questions fell into 3 categories — food preparation, personal, and amounts of foods allowed. Seven items about how answers to diet questions might help respondents were included as the "use" component. An attitude scale contained 14 Likert-type questions.

Of the 35 patients surveyed, only 5 reported receiving no dietary recommendations while in hospital. Spouses of 3 of these patients disagreed. This disagreement points to a previously identified problem that during hospitalization cardiac patients may be unable to focus on education due to other concerns. Spouses were found to participate more frequently in group instruction than patients. The majority of respondents indicated that preparing and sampling food during class would be helpful.

Patients and spouses perceived their diet-related situations similarly. The "moving" state was most frequently experienced which indicated positive perceptions regarding progress of the diet. The high mean response found for the "decision" state implied uncertainty about the many cardiac diet choices facing respondents. Results of the "gaps" section revealed that clients and spouses were frequently asking different questions. Patients most frequently asked "personal" questions while spouses asked questions relating to food selection. The "uses" section showed that respondents felt that answers to their diet questions would be useful to make decisions, to be motivated, to feel in control, and to plan. The attitude measure revealed that patients and spouses were ready, willing, and able to comply with diet recommendations. Despite this, respondents found food shopping and label reading difficult. Of the respondents, 34% reported they enjoyed following the cardiac diet and 48% enjoyed eating foods on the cardiac diet. The authors stated that a brief client survey such as the one outlined could assist dietitians in providing individualized counselling as well as evaluate class content and emphasis.

The vitamin C content of seven cultivars of potatoes grown across Canada.

Millin, W.J., Jui, P.Y., Nadeau, L., and Smyrl, T.G. (1991)
Canadian Institute of Food Science and Technology Journal, 24, 169-171.

Samples of seven potato cultivars from eight provinces in Canada were collected during the 1986 growing season for vitamin C analysis. The seven cultivars most commonly grown in Canada included Superior, Russett Burbank, Shepody, Yukon Gold, Red Pontiac, Norchip, and Kennebec, the latter two being processing varieties. At harvest, 15 to 20 unblemished tubers weighing 120-200 g each, were picked at random. For each replicate, 4-6 tubers were chosen at random. These were washed, peeled, washed again, and dried with paper towels. Each potato was cut in half longitudinally. One half was finely diced and the other half was discarded. A 100g sample of the thoroughly mixed diced potato was analyzed for vitamin C content using the indophenol titration method.

Results showed large differences in vitamin C content among provinces as well as among cultivars. The mean vitamin C content of all samples was 14.3 mg/100 g fresh weight, with a range of 5.1 to 29.7 mg/100g fresh weight.

The authors expressed concern over the wide range of values found for vitamin C content. Of particular concern were figures used in nutrient data banks. The authors suggested the use of a range as more appropriate for Canada where environmental and growing conditions vary widely. As well, processors should be aware that terms such as "good" or "excellent" source of vitamin C may not be accurate and could contravene Canadian food labelling legislation.

Lipid composition of indigenous foods eaten by the Sahtu (Hareskin) Dene-Metis of the Northwest Territories.

Appavoo, D.M., Kubow, S., and Kuhnlein, H. (1991)
Journal of Food Composition and Analysis, 4, 107-119.

The crude fat and fatty acid content of indigenous foods frequently consumed by the Sahtu Dene-Metis of Fort Good Hope and Colville Lake, NWT and their dietary fat intakes were determined. Information and samples were gathered during summer and winter harvests. A food sample collection list was compiled with the assistance of local community members. Food samples were obtained directly from hunters and fisherpersons with smoke and dried samples coming from the households producing them. Single 24-hour recalls were administered by trained community field workers for the summer and winter study periods.

Lipid and fatty acid profiles of dried meat and liver of moose and caribou, moose-blood and lungs, and beaver feet and tail have not been reported previously. As well, lipid levels for baked flesh of loche, whitefish, cisco and inconnu, and the heads of loche and whitefish had not been available for fish harvested in northern waters. Indigenous foods found to be low in fat (< 5% wet weight) were raw and cooked whitefish, inconnu, cisco, loche, trout, caribou, moose, and rabbit. Higher amounts of fat (> 18% wet weight) were found in dried and smoked flesh of whitefish, inconnu and cisco, raw and cooked whitefish eggs, raw and cooked loche liver, and cooked beaver feet and tail.

Fish and fish parts had lower proportions of saturated fatty acids (SFA) relative to polyunsaturated (PUFA) and monounsaturated fatty acids (MFA). The predominant PUFA in fish were omega-3 fatty acids. Animal foods contained higher amounts of SFA relative to PUFA and MFA. The majority of PUFA form animals was in the form of omega-6 fatty acids.

Dietary intake data showed that the main indigenous foods used in Fort Good Hope were moose and inconnu in summer and caribou, moose, rabbit, and whitefish in the winter. In Coleville Lake, smoked-dried and baked whitefish followed by caribou were the primary foods. Market foods making the largest contribution to the diet by the greatest numbers of people appeared to be high in refined carbohydrates and/or fat. Examples of commonly eaten market foods included sugar, white bread, bannock, lard, butter, frankfurters, and french fries. Indigenous foods reportedly eaten by adults of Fort Good Hope contained 20.5 g fat/1000 kcal and had a P:S:M ratio of 1.0:1.0:0.8 in the summer. Winter foods eaten contained 18.1 g fat/1000 kcal and had a P:S:M ration of 0.7:1.0:0.5. These were significantly lower in fat than market foods eaten which contained a mean of 42.8 g fat/1000 kcal and had significantly higher P:S:M ratios. Fat intakes per unit energy were lower in Colville Lake and outpost camps, as was anticipated by more traditional lifestyles.

The authors concluded that this study showed that the indigenous foods eaten by the Sahtu Dene-Metis could make a major contribution toward decreasing total fat consumption and maintaining favorable ratios of PUFA:SFA and omega-3: omega-6 fatty acids.

Dietary fiber pectic substances: Source of discrepancy between methods of fiber analysis.

Monro, J.A. (1991)
Journal of Food Composition and Analysis, 4, 88-99.

To demonstrate the differences between methods for analysis of dietary fibre on the extraction of pectic substances, an examination of the influence of buffer type (phosphate vs. acetate), buffer concentration, pH, the presence of Ca, and sample: buffer ratio was made. A variety of fruits and vegetables were freeze-dried and powdered prior to analysis.

Results showed that a number of the variables which differ between methods of soluble fibre analysis may strongly influence the degree of extraction of pectic substances. In particular, buffer species, buffer concentration, and pH were found to affect extraction. The phosphate buffer extracted more polyuronide than did the acetate buffer. Use of an acetate buffer showed extraction was dependent on pH, buffer molarity, and sample: buffer ratio. With a sodium acetate buffer, it was demonstrated that polyuronide solubility increased with increasing pH at a constant sodium concentration and an increased solubility with increasing sodium concentration at a constant pH.

Comparison of the Englyst and Cummings (1988) method which uses hot phosphate buffer and colorimetric polyuronide measurement with the method of Theander and Westerlund (1986) which uses acetate buffer and measures polyuronide via decarboxylation method, revealed major differences in polyuronide extraction. In some samples, as much as a 400% difference in extraction was shown.

The authors point to the need for standardization in fibre methodology to minimize the intermethod differences demonstrated in this study. The authors also argued for a standard method which would measure the fibre fraction potentially soluble in the human gut.

Cancer and polyps of the colorectum and lifetime consumption of beer and other alcoholic beverages.

Riboli, E., Cornee, J., Macquart-Moulin, G., Kaaks, R., Casagrande, C., and Guyader, M. (1991)
American Journal of Epidemiology, 134, 157-166.

To investigate the role of alcoholic beverage consumption on the incidence of colorectal cancers and polyps, two parallel case-control studies were conducted in France. One study included 389 cases (187 men; 202 women) of histologically confirmed adenocarcinoma of the colorectum with a mean age of 65.4 years for men and 65.9 years for women. The other study included 252 cases (154 men; 98 women) of adenomatous or villous polyps with a mean age of 59 years for men and 62 years for women. Controls, matched for age and sex, were chosen from patients undergoing physical therapy due to illness or injury which resulted in reduced mobility. Dietary intake date were collected using a diet history interview method. Consumption of alcoholic beverages was estimated from reported frequency of consumption and the amount consumed per day or week for several periods throughout the lifespan. The average lifetime consumption of beer, wine aperitif and distillate, and the total alcohol intake were calculated.

Daily consumption of total ethanol was nearly 5 times greater for men (69.5 + 72.6 mL/day) than for women (13.6 + 15.1 mL/day). Wine was the most common alcoholic beverage consumed by both sexes followed by beer for men and fortified wines for women. Distillates were reportedly consumed in lesser amounts. Consumption of wine did not differ significantly between cases and controls. Analysis showed that the risk for rectal cancer in male beer drinkers was 1.73 times that of nonconsumers. For men and women combined, the risk was 1.71 timers greater. Consumption of beer was not associated with colon cancer. Neither total ethanol intake or consumption of wine or distillates was associated with increased risk of cancers of polyps of the colon or rectum. Analysis indicated that beer drinkers who drank beer for longer than 25 years might have an increased risk of rectal cancer than did those who consumed beer for less than 25 years. Results remained virtually unchanged after controlling for total energy intake and fruit and vegetable fibre consumption.

The authors postulated a possible mechanism for the apparent carcinogenic effect of beer to be the nitrosamine content of this beverage. They suggested all countries concerned with beer consumption should investigate the nitrosamine content of local beers. A step further to regulation of lowered nitrosamine levels in beer was recommended. Further laboratory and epidemiological research was called for to explore the association between beer consumption and risk of rectal cancer and to elucidate the mechanism by which alcohol, nitrosamines, or additional possible factors increase this risk.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Children's dietary knowledge, skills and attitudes: Measurement issues. Contento, I.R. (1991). *Journal of School Health, 61,* 208-211.

The transient hypercholesterolemia of major weight loss. Phinney, S.D., Tang, A.B., Waggoner, C.R., Tezanos-Pinto, R.G., and Davis, P.A. (1991). *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 53,* 1404-1410.

INFOODS guidelines for describing foods: A systematic approach to describing foods to facilitate international exchange of food composition data. Truswell, A.S., Bateson, D.J., Madafiglio, K.C., Pennington, J.A., Rand, W.M., and Klensin, J.C. (1991). *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis, 4,* 18-38.

Obesity treatment: The high cost of false hope. Wooley, S.C., and Garner, D.M. (1991). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91,* 1248-1251.

Position of The American Dietetic Association: Fat replacements. Hudnell, M.J., Connor, S.L., and Connor, W.E. (1991). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91,* 1285-1288.

A dietary, social and economic evaluation of the Philadelphia urban gardening project. Blair, D., Giesecke, C.C., and Sherman, S. (1991). *Journal of Nutrition Education, 23,* 161-167.

Trends in serum cholesterol levels from 1980 to 1987. The Minnesota Heart Study. Burke, G.L., Sprafka, J.M., Folsom, A.R., Hahn, L.P., Luepker, R.V., and Blackburn, H. (1991). *New England Journal of Medicine, 324,* 941-946.

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Textiles and Clothing

Big and tall men as apparel shoppers: Consumer characteristics and shopping behavior.

Shim, S., and Kotsiopulos, A. (1991)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9(2), 16-19.

The purpose of this research was: to attempt to segment the big and tall men's market based on the clothing involvement of big and tall men; to explore the relationship between clothing involvement and clothing characteristics; and to explore the relationship between clothing involvement and clothing shopping behaviors. One hundred and seventy-two customers of big and tall retailers across the United States completed a self-administered questionnaire. Results indicated that clothing involvement levels of big and tall men were divided into "low", "medium":, and "high". These three groups were compared on clothing orientations, lifestyle activities, demographic characteristics (i.e., consumer characteristics), and satisfaction with clothing shopping experiences, and clothing buying practices (i.e., clothing shopping behaviors).

Shim and Kotsiopulos found clothing involvement useful in segmenting as it may identify primary consumer groups. It was also determined that the groups at each of the three levels of clothing involvement differed in consumer characteristics and in clothing shopping behavior. The authors caution that care be taken in the interpretation of these results as the respondents were quite homogeneous with respect to demographic characteristics; those with demographic characteristics different to this sample may show different results.

Consumers of customized sewing services.

Johnson, J.S., Littrell, M.A., and Reilly, R. (1991)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9(2), 7-15.

The purpose of this research was: to determine the incidence of use of customized sewing services; and to identify user groups based on the type and the frequency of use of customized sewing services. Those who reported through an initial telephone interview that they were users of customized sewing services were sent a self-administered questionnaire.

Thirty-seven percent of those contacted were users of customized sewing services. A comparison of users and nonusers suggested that these groups differ on interest in self-enhancement through clothing, use of a variety of customized services, personal sewing abilities, education, and income. A factor analysis of the information provided by users resulted in the identification of the following groups: Comprehensive Users, Custom Garment and Alteration Users, Mending and Alteration Users, Alteration Users, and Mending Users. These five groups differed on interest in dress, use of a range of customized services, personal sewing skill, source of sewing professional, distance travelled for sewing services, and predicted future use of services. Based on these results, the authors make several recommendations for small home-based sewing businesses.

Recognition effectiveness of comic strip advertising for small retail firms.

Daneshvary, R. (1991)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9(2), 33-35.

Daneshvary examined the effectiveness of comic strip advertising for small retail firms, specifically retail clothing stores through the investigation of beliefs toward comic strip advertising and recognition of the strip. Beliefs toward comic strip advertising was also examined in relation to individual characteristics.

One week following the appearance of a comic strip advertisement in a local newspaper in Grand Forks, North Dakota, self-administered questionaires were randomly distributed to 900 households. The results of a chi-square analysis and analysis of variance of the information provided by the 147 usable questionnaires suggest the following. Recognition was found to be influenced by beliefs toward comic strip advertising. Although comic strip advertising did not induce short-term purchasing, it may be used to establish long-term store image because of its high degree of recognition. Although these results may be subject to some non-response bias, they do provide valuable information for clothing retailers.

The effects of water hardness level on washing quality using commercial laundry detergents.

Brown, D.M., Cameron, B.A., Meyer, S.S., and Umber, J.J. (1991)
Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 15(3), 215-222.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of water hardness level on effectiveness of commercial laundry detergents. Samples of fabrics were washed in all combinations of the ten samples of water with varied hardness levels; hot and warm temperatures; and the six commercial detergents. Measures of whiteness of the fabric samples were taken and an analysis of variance and t-Tests were performed to indicate that the best whiteness results were given by the detergent which contained a non-ionic surfactant with a phosphate builder.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Levafix dyestuffs in the cold pad-batch process. Hildebrand, D. (1991). *Canadian Textile Journal, 108*(10), 28-37.

Mass fashion as threat in context and concept. Hamilton, J.A. (1991). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9*(2), 25-32.

The effect of detergents on fabric handle. Tinsley, A., Byrne, M., and Fritz, A. (1991). *Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 15(3)*, 223-230.

Chapter 2: Direct dyes and their application. Aspland, J.R. (1991). *Textile Chemist and Colorist, 23*(11), 41-45.

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New Developments

Compiled by Brenda White

. . . In Resources

Guiding Principles for Environmental Labelling and Advertising

Consumers are concerned about the environmental effects of the products and materials they use. They need objective, credible, and truthful information which can be readily acquired and understood. The 16-page publication, *Guiding Principles for Environmental Labelling and Advertising* will enhance provision of meaningful information to consumers, and will help industry in its obligation to ensure compliance with the applicable legislation. Background information and guidance on the use of claims that are ambiguous or profess general benefit to the environment are addressed, as are the more specific, commonly used representations of recyclable, recycled, and degradable. This free publication is available in English and French.

Contact: Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada, Place du Portage I, 50 Victoria Street, Hull, Quebec K1A 0C9.

Human Health and The Environment/ La santé et l'environnement

This bilingual catalogue of audio-visual resources covers everything from allergies and drinking water to hazardous waste and tobacco advertising. It includes a description of all 190 English resources and 40 French ones as well as the distributor from which materials can be bought, rented, or borrowed. This catalogue is available at no charge in English and French.

To obtain: Write to Publications Distribution Center, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0K9.

The Research File

This is a series of bilingual summaries of recent research projects and literature reviews on topics relating to physical activity and well-being. Three recent issues were: "Promoting Active Living-Motivating Adolescent Girls", "Prescribing Activity for Overweight Youth", and "Print Media Coverage of Physical Activity". A one-year subscription for 12 bilingual summaries costs $25.00.

For more information: Contact The Research File, Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, 47 Clarence Street, Suite 200, Ottawa, Ontario K1N 9K1.

Home Storage Guide for Fruits and Vegetables

This 11″ x 17″ poster gives suggested storage times and temperatures for over 60 produce items as well as tips on ripening, when to wash, and what conditions are needed for root cellar storage. Individual copies are available at no charge. The guide is also available in quantities.

For more information: Contact The Fresh for Flavour Foundation, 310, 1101 Prince of Wales Drive, Ottawa, Ontario K2C 3W7.

A Profile of the Canadian Specialty Food Industry/ Un profil de l'industrie canadienne des aliments fins

A study of the specialty food manufacturing industry in Canada and the markets for specialty foods in North America was recently completed. The findings of the study have been summarized in a free, 20-page report.

To obtain: Write to the Federal/Provincial Market Development Council Secretariat, Bayswater Square, 3rd Floor, 1066 Somerset Street West, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0C5.

Health Help

This guide is intended to simplify the search for national resources in maternal and child health. Designed to aid educators, health professionals, and the general public in identifying information sources, the book provides over 500 titles under 76 subject headings. Its cost is $10.00 (including postage and handling).

To order: Send cheque or money order to Canadian Association of Paediatric Hospitals, 401 Smyth Road, Ottawa, Ontario K1H 8L1.

Canadian Families

This 40-page, bilingual booklet on the changing family in Canada is available free of charge (for less than 20 copies).

To obtain: Write to The Vanier Institute of the Family, 120 Holland Avenue, Suite 300, Ottawa, Ontario K1Y 0X6.

Social Policy in the 1990s: The Challenge

The report of a conference held in Ottawa in the fall of 1990 is available free of charge (single copies only).

To obtain: Write to the Canadian Council on Social Development, 55 Parkdale Avenue, Box 3505, Station C, Ottawa, Ontario K1Y 4G1.

Child Sexual Abuse — Guidelines for Community Workers

The guidelines in this booklet are designed to facilitate the development of prevention programs and to enhance the care, protection, and treatment of sexually abused children. It is available free of charge.

To order: Write to Distribution Unit, Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, 562 Jeanne Mance Building, Tunney's Pasture, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 1B4.

New Osteoporosis Publications

The Guide to Osteoporosis for Pre-Menopausal Women (Standing Up to Osteoporosis) and *The Guide to Osteoporosis* *for the Older Adult* are two publications of the Osteoporosis Society of Canada. Though single copies are available at no charge, donations are encouraged to support the organization's efforts.

For more information: Contact Osteoporosis Society of Canada, 33 Laird Drive, Toronto, Ontario M4G 3S9.

The Household Hazardous Wastes Handbook

How do you know which household wastes need special treatment? And once you have identified them, how do you dispose of them? *The Household Hazardous Wastes Handbook* is an easy-to-understand guide to the identification and disposal of potentially dangerous wastes. Single copies are available at no charge.

For more information: Write to Alberta Special Waste Management Corporation, 610, 10909 Jasper Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta T5J 3L9.

. . . In Products

Imitation Granite Spray Paint

Speckle Stone is a spray paint which creates a textured imitation granite finish to anything from vases to tables to mirror frames. Available in different colors, it is easy to use, feels like stone, and sticks to virtually any surface.

Source: *Creative Homestyles Magazine, Vol. 6,* Winter 1991.

Melamine Refinisher for Old Surfaces

Melamine Refinisher is a very tough coating which has the ability to re-surface laminated plastic surfaces (e.g. countertops). It also works as an excellent, super tough, scrubbable finish on window sills, walls, mouldings, ceilings, and floors.

Source: *Creative Homestyles Magazine, Vol. 6,* Winter 1991.

Superspike Posts

No need to shudder at the thought of all the work and potential problems with installing posts for a fence, deck, or even a mailbox or outdoor lighting unit. *Superspike* can allow you to install a post in five minutes with no special equipment, digging, or pouring concrete. Superspikes are made of heavy gauge all steel welded construction. They are rustproof, and since they are plated — not painted — they will not flake or peel.

Source: *Creative Homestyles Magazine, Vol. 6,* Winter 1991.

Metal Microwave Containers

A new generation of microwavable packages will use metal in the containers themselves and not simply as susceptors to encourage browning. These new packages will require considerable re-education of a public raised on the belief that metal containers and microwaves definitely do not mix.

The significance in the marketplace of them remains to be seen. They slow the cooking process, compared to plastic containers, but they do allow processors to use a single container for convention and microwave oven applications (as they do now with some types of plastic). The metal containers also eliminate the "cold spots" to which foods cooked in plastic are prone.

Hamilton-based Dofasco Steel is actively looking into how it might make microwavable metal containers for the Canadian processed food market.

Source: *Food in Canada, Vol. 51,* No. 9, October 1991.

The Smart Vacuum

Your vacuum will automatically tell you when your carpet or floor is clean. That is due to the auto cleaning sensor feature of Panasonic's new Jet-Flo MC-6337 model. It is the beginning of a new generation of consumer appliances that use "fuzzy logic", a programming innovation that allows computers to more closely imitate human reasoning. It instantly detects dust particles, even those invisible to the naked eye. In the joint between the cleaner and hose is a dust sensor which detects the amount of dust passing through the nozzle and automatically adjusts the power level. Users can also adjust the vacuum to work at two noise levels — "normal", for everyday cleaning and "quiet", for late at night, early in the morning, or when baby's sleeping.

Source: *Calgary Herald,* November 14, 1991.

Nega-Stat

Apparel. Home furnishings. Interior textiles. *Nega-Stat* can make any kind of fabric a permanent static stopper. DuPont makes the only static dissipative fibre with a carbon trilobal core totally encapsulated in a sheath of polyester or nylon. The strong protected core will not flake or chip. Static discharge and static cling are eliminated. Fabrics made with this fibre may be woven, finished, and dyed.

Source: *Textile World,* October 1991.

The Lightest of Textile Fibres

Telar is a new, fine-denier, continuous filament olefin fibre targeted at the apparel and home fashions markets. Developed by Filament Fiber Technology, it combines polypropylene with other olefins to create a yarn with good moisture transfer and abrasion resistance, colorfastness, and a soft hand. It is the lightest of all textile fibres — the only one that floats in water.

Source: *Textile World,* October 1991.

. . . In Ideas

Decade Against Drug Abuse

"We proclaim the period from 1991 to 2000 the United Nations Decade against Drug Abuse, to be devoted to effective and sustained national, regional, and international actions to promote the implementation of the Global Programme of Action . . ."

So states the Political Declaration adopted by the special session of the UN General Assembly. Wondering what Canada is doing to uphold its commitment?

For more information contact: Director of Communications, Canada's Drug Strategy Secretariat, Policy Planning and Information Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0K9.

Food Technologies and Nutritional Value of Foods

Microwaving: Nutrient retention in microwave cooked foods depends on cooking times, food mass and type, internal temperature, use of moisture, oven type and size, and the power level used. In general, the nutrient content of microwave cooked and reheated foods is equal to or slightly greater than that of the same product prepared conventionally.

Irradiation: Loss of nutrients due to ionizing energy at doses suitable for commercial processing is comparable to that caused by other processing methods used to achieve the same objectives. The "degradation products" in irradiated foods are the same as those formed during heat treatments.

Freeze-Drying: Freeze-dried products are almost nutritionally identical to the starting material. Nutrient losses caused by the normal thawing of conventionally frozen foods are not encountered in freeze-drying.

Chemical Preservation: The fermentation of aged cheeses, bread, yogurt, and sauerkraut may allow microbial synthesis of B vitamins (except B12), possibly increasing the nutritional value of the food. Fermentation of milk to produce yogurt could increase its folate content.

The use of food additives that have a significant adverse effect on nutrient content of foods is not permitted. For example, because sulfites degrade thiamin, they are not permitted in foods that are important sources of this vitamin, such as meats. Vitamins used as food additives can enrich a food's nutritive value. Ascorbic acid is used as an antioxidant in meat; tocopherol is added as an antioxidant to fats and oils and beta-carotene is used as a coloring agent in cheese, ice cream, and soup.

Source: *National Institute of Nutrition Review, Vol. 6,* No. 4, October 1991.

The Next Step: Interim Housing For Abused and Their Children

This program, coordinated by Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation, has been given $20.6 million by the Federal Government to help develop secure accommodation for abused women and their children leaving an emergency shelter. The program will assist non-profit groups to build or renovate housing for such a purpose. More information and application forms are available from all Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation offices.

Source: *Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation Press Release,* September 1991.

Group on Recycling Textiles

A group of textile recyclers has formed the Council for Textile Recycling (CTR). This Maryland-based group's purpose is to create greater awareness of the benefits of textile recycling and develop new uses and markets for post-consumer and post-producer textile product waste. Two examples of projects to date include encouraging textile and apparel manufacturers to use "recyclable fabrics" and educating consumers on how to properly dispose of old and worn clothing.

Source: *Textile World,* September 1991.

. . . In Trends

Debit Card Buying

The debit card system allows consumers at everywhere from liquor stores to grocery stores to use their automated teller cards for direct access to their bank accounts. For a small fee, the cost of the purchase is immediately transferred into the account of the merchant. It is convenient for the consumer, provides instantaneous availability of funds for retailers, and banks' costs for handling cash (transportation, security, counting) are decreased. A year-long pilot was deemed successful. As a result, the association of banks, trust companies, credit unions, and caisses populaires will expand the debit-payment system into British Columbia and Quebec in the fall 1992, across the Prairies in 1993, and throughout Ontario and the Atlantic provinces in 1994.

Source: *Calgary Herald,* November 14, 1991.

Caring For Children

The increase in the number of employed women with children and of children being raised in families with just one parent has created a need for alternatives to the "stay-at-home" mother form of child care.

In 1990, there were more than 1.3 million preschoolers (under age 6) and 1.7 million school age children (aged 6-12) whose mothers were in the labor force. Thus, as many as 3 million children may have been in need of alternate child care, up from 2.6 million in 1985 and 1.4 million in 1971.

Sitters were the most common type of child care arrangement (68%), followed by kindergarten/nursery schools (22%), day care centres (8%), and Before and After School Programs (3%).

Relatives were called upon by many parents, especially in families with low incomes, to assist with the care of their children. Grandparents, followed by aunts and uncles, were the most common relatives used as sitters.

Children in day care centres averaged more time in care than did those in the care of a sitter (31 hours per week vs 20 hours per week).

Sitter's costs were generally lower than day care costs.

Most parents are satisfied with their child care arrangements. Parents of 69% of children in formal day care settings and 77% of those in the care of a sitter had "no reservations" about their child's well-being.

Source: *Canadian Social Trends,* Fall 1991.

Discount Broker Ranks Growing

Discount brokerage services are lower cost stock trading services without many of the traditional trappings such as investment analysis and advice. It has been reported that one in 10 investors — and the number continues to grow — choose to make their own investment decisions on their own and do not require or desire full-service brokers.

Discounting began in Canada in 1983 when the Toronto and Montreal stock exchanges stopped forcing member firms to charge specific commission rates. Although all of Canada's major banks except Toronto-Dominion own some or all services of a full-service broker, they have responded to their clients' willingness to deal with discounters by establishing discount firms that effectively compete against their own full-service firms. Only time will tell if there is enough business for everyone.

Source: *Calgary Herald,* November 24, 1991.

Mutual Funds Head For Dynamic Growth

Despite the 1987 stock market collapse and the recessionary times, the growth of mutual funds in Canada has been 24.6, 23.7, 21.5, 17.1, and 21.6 percent per year over the last five years. An Ernst and Young study predicts that mutual fund assets will grow by an average of more than 20 percent a year for the next five years. The funds totalled only $7 billion in 1980 but jumped to $42.8 billion in 1990 — and in the first half of 1991, in the midst of a recession, another $7 billion was added. A staggering growth prediction of $250 billion to $300 billion less than a decade from now has been made.

This trend follows what has been happening in the United States.

Declining bank and government bond interest rates, declining commission or acquisition costs for mutual funds, and the desire of consumers to earn a better-than-average rate of return by participating in new products that are expected to be introduced in coming years are all factors affecting mutual funds' predicted growth.

Source: *Calgary Herald*, November 24, 1991.

Preparing For the Future

To prepare for the rest of this century and beyond, organizations must look at the environment, global alliances, and corporate culture. To manage these three major issues, try this plan:

- Make people the number one priority. Recruit good workers and keep turnover rate low.
- Avoid bureaucracy. Think "small", regardless of the size of your organization. Initiate action that fosters change.
- Look outward. Allow the marketplace to influence your activity.
- Focus on the right issues. Pick those with potential. The three mentioned — the environment, globalization, and reinventing the corporate culture — are good starting points.
- Do not be obsessed with the bottom line. Watch the line, but do not sacrifice long-term opportunities for short-term dividends.
- Emphasize quality. Every part of the organization will work effectively and efficiently if you concentrate on good products and good service.

Source: *Communication Briefings*, September 1991.

"You've started skating again?"
"Yes, I'm working on a new figure."
PARTICIPACTION
Make your move.

Put winter on ice.
Go to your neighbourhood rink.
Catch up with old friends
and meet new ones!

What do you say when . . . ?

What do you say when consumers ask you for less toxic alternatives to use when removing specific spots and stains?

Mavis McPhail

Question: *How do you remove grease spots without using a grease solvent?*

Answer: *"To remove grease spots from cotton or woolen materials, absorbent pastes and even common soap are used." (Beeton, 1880)*

Answer: *"Most stains can be removed with a paste of soap flakes and water or by scrubbing with a plain bar soap". Then launder as usual.*

Harmony Foundation of Canada, 1989)

Question: *"Accidently I scorched one of my good white linen table cloths. How do I get rid of the mark without damaging the fabric more and without restoring to a solvent?"*

Answer: *"To restore whiteness to scorched linen use the following ingredients: 1/2 pint of vinegar, 2 oz. of fuller's earth, 1 oz. of dried fowls' dung, 1/2 oz. of soap, the juice of 2 large onions.*

Boil all ingredients together to the consistency of paste; spread the composition thickly over the damaged part, after it has been allowed to dry on, and washed once or twice, every trace of scorching will disappear". (Beeton, 1880)

Answer: *"To remove a scorch mark from white linen, cut a raw onion and rub the scorched area with the flat side of the onion until the onion juice is absorbed. Let sit, then soak in cold water for a few hours." (GEHPC, 1989)*

Is it possible that one hundred and nine years later the same advice is still being given for stain removal? Except for the fuller's earth and fowls' dung, it almost seems too easy!

Is spot and stain removal in the '90s that simple? Do we rely on and simply hand out our grandmothers' remedies that were recommended before man-made fabrics, before washers and dryers, and before our high laundry expectations of a 'faint spot' left as not being good enough? Some of the literature suggests that we do.

Getting rid of spots and stains has become very complex in the 1990s. Not only is there an increased variety of fabrics that require quite different care, but also there is a concern for and a need to protect the environment with whatever product is used. With so many 'green' solutions for spot removal being given, it is confusing for the consumer. Which ones are reliable? To date there has been little if any testing of less toxic alternatives on today's fabrics. Consumers are on their own and experimenting. As home economists and educators, we need tested reliable information in this area. We also need to be encouraging and supportive of those consumers who are trying less toxic alternatives.

In tough economic times, stain removal becomes even more important. Consumers are encouraged to buy the best quality garments and home furnishings that they can afford. By buying quality rather than quantity and taking care of what they have, the replacement costs will be lower. Harsh spot and stain removers may actually remove color and weaken fabrics which means more frequent replacement and more costs. Consumers must be cautioned to not make the false assumption that because 'green' alternatives are less toxic, they are incapable of harming fabrics. If used incorrectly, they can ruin fabrics and/or set the stain.

Getting Down to the Task

Removing stains from a garment, carpet, or upholstery fabric can be one of the most frustrating chores simply because when the method used does not work, it really does not. In some instances whatever has been tried may set the stain and then removal becomes even more difficult if not impossible.

- Consumers should be reminded that stain removal can be tricky but there are some very basic rules to follow that will make the job easier.
- Use common sense when dealing with any stain removal technique. New 'environmentally less toxic' solutions are a mixture of folklore and trial-and-error. Some experimenting will have to be done.
- Timing is very important. Remove the stain as soon as possible.
- Always keep the fabric content and color in mind when removing a stain. It must be stressed that the 'new' remedy be tested on the 'new' fabric. This is to be done on an inconspicuous area to see how the fabric is going to react and to determine colorfastness. Removing the stain at the expense of the fabric is not an acceptable solution.

The International Fabricare Institute makes a very clear cautionary statement to consumers regarding pretesting:

> Do not attempt home spot removal with either water or a cleaning fluid without testing first for colorfastness. Wet the item on an unexposed area such as an

inside seam and blot with a paper towel to make sure the color is fast. (I.F.C., 1989)

- Use a step-by-step approach. First, try the simplest, mildest technique. If it works — great! If not, try a stronger method and then an even stronger one, until the stain is lifted from the fabric. Patience and perseverance are key words in stain removal.

How Do Stains Disappear?

A stain must be soluble in the stain remover used or able to be dissolved in it in order to be successfully removed. This concept of solubility is very important to understand in stain removal. Consumers must think in terms of solvent and solute. A solvent is any substance that will draw another substance, called a solute, into solution. For many stains, plain water is an excellent solvent. For others, only a petroleum-based solvent such as kerosene or gasoline will work. Alcohol is another familiar solvent. It is often described as an in-between type of solvent, sharing certain properties common to both water and petroleum-based solvents. Isopropyl alcohol is the most readily obtainable.

Rubbing will not make stains disappear. Never rub a stain, especially when attempting to remove a stain from silk or other delicate fabrics. Blot the stained area. This will help to move the staining substance without spreading it and will also avoid damaging the fabric (I.F.C. 1989).

Use of Solvents in the Nineties

There will be times when solvents are required to remove stains. Perchloroethylene is the most commonly used solvent in spot removers. This is the same one used at the dry cleaners. The major risk in using perchloroethylene comes from exposure to it while using the product. The fumes are carcinogenic, highly toxic, and can cause light-headiness, dizziness, sleepiness, nausea, loss of appetite, and disorientation. Safety is of the utmost importance if there is no other solution to the stain problem.

In Making The Switch — Alternatives to Using Toxic Chemicals in the Home (1989), the author points out that in a society embarrassed by 'ring around the collar' and where inadequate stain removal is not good enough, the demand for new and improved spot removers and laundry products have given rise to new and potentially hazardous product ingredients.

If used in industry, these chemicals would be subjected to various health and safety standards, yet these same substances are used freely and often carelessly in homes. Consumers could prevent these accidents if they knew more about which products to use and how to dispose of them safely. This same information would also promote more informed decision-making with respect to product selection (G.E.H.P.C., 1989).

Home economists should encourage consumers to be informed about solvents:

- To be smart shoppers. If the choice is between two toxic products, choose the less toxic one. Levels of the toxicity ranges from Danger to Warning to Caution.
- To follow the directions on the label carefully.
- To select water-based products instead of solvent-based ones whenever possible.
- To never mix spot and stain removal products as the combination of ingredients could be toxic. Never mix chlorine bleach and ammonia; deadly chloramine fumes are produced. Never mix chlorine bleach with vinegar, deadly chlorine gas is produced.
- To remember B.U.G.

  B — buy only what is required to do the job,
  U — Use it all up, or
  G — give it to someone who will.

  There is no disposal problem here.
- To avoid issuing more of a product than the label recommends. Twice as much does not work twice as well.
- To stop and think before disposing of any solvent products and containers. Take the time to read the label and find out what the correct disposal method is.

Undeniably it is to everyone's advantage to 'try out' less toxic alternatives to chemical spot removers since they have the potential to be so dangerous.

Less Toxic Alternatives

Some of the less toxic alternatives that are effective include:

- Pre-treating spots by rubbing with a bar of pure laundry soap.
- Liquid chlorine bleach can be replaced by whiteners such as oxygen bleach, vinegar, and baking or washing sodas which become bleaching agents when they are mixed with water.
- Ball-point pen marks can be soaked in milk and gently blotted away.
- Pour boiling water over fresh coffee stains to remove them.
- To remove spots from upholstery and carpet, blot immediately with club soda.
- To remove perspiration stains, sponge the area with a weak solution of white vinegar and water or lemon juice and water.
- Soak stained fabrics for an hour in an ordinary detergent and water solution. In a stain removal test that was presented in *Protect Yourself* (January, 1989), it stated that 60% of stains were effectively removed in a detergent water solution. This is definitely a low cost solution.
- Use a professional dry cleaner for stubborn stains.

Drycleaners — A Less Toxic Alternative?

In the scheme of less toxic stain removal, where do drycleaners fall? Like solvents, drycleaning services will continue to be a required service for stubborn stains and 'dryclean only' fabrics. Consumers can question their local drycleaner(s) and find out which ones are recycling their drycleaning fluids. This shows a responsible practice of source and disposal reduction.

The International Fabricare Institute urges consumers to be cautious about home stain remedies.

> Before you attempt to remove a spot yourself, you may wish to ask your drycleaner for advice. Some home remedies can be harmful. For example, alcohol, such as that found in hair sprays, may help remove the stain, but it could also cause permanent color loss. Always test an unexposed area before using any spot removal agent. (Trouble Spots, I.F.C.)

Some other recommendations the International Fabricare Institute makes are:

- Do not use pre-wash soil and stain removers on neon and fluorescent colors. The colors might fade or run.
- Never put a garment away with spills or stains on it. The warmth of a closet and exposure to natural or artificial light and to the atmosphere can contribute to setting a stain.
- Take in a stained garment to the cleaners as soon as possible, preferably within a few days to prevent the stain from setting.
- Do not iron stained or soiled clothes; this will set stains and drive the soil deeper into the fabric.
- Be particularly aware of the spills of fruit juices, soft drinks, and coffee or tea. These are some of the most difficult stains to remove.
- Avoid the use of home bleaches in attempting stain removal. Failure to rinse out the bleach or the incorrect use could permanently damage the fabric or dyestuff.
- Do not place white fabrics in the sun to dry. Sunlight used to be a favorite 'bleaching agent' but modern fabrics contain fluorescent brighteners. Placing them to dry in the sun may cause permanent yellowing.

Conclusion

Consumers are to be commended for looking for less toxic stain removal alternatives. Home economists need to promote the testing of these suggested alternatives on today's stains which are on today's fabrics so that we can give consumers supported answers, not folklore. We need to remind consumers to follow the basic rules of stain removal and how important it is to pretest any product or procedure on an inconspicuous place. Consumers need to approach it with common sense, caution, patience, and perseverance. Never before has stain removal been so economically crucial.

There is much to be done. □

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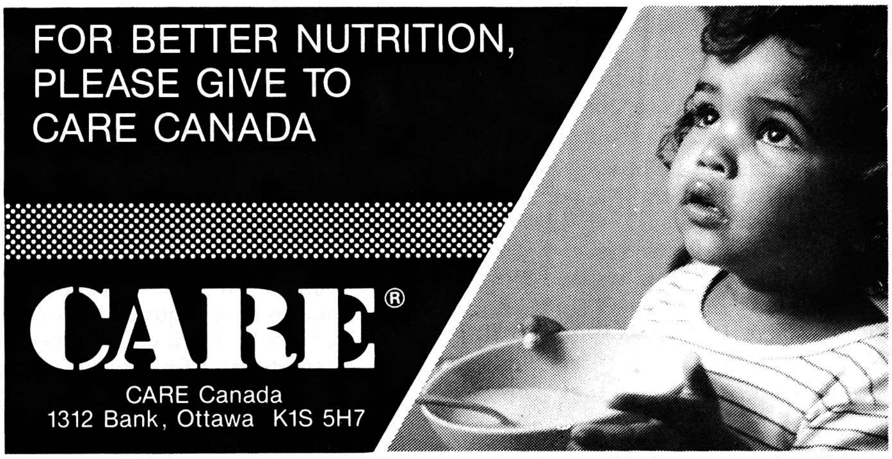

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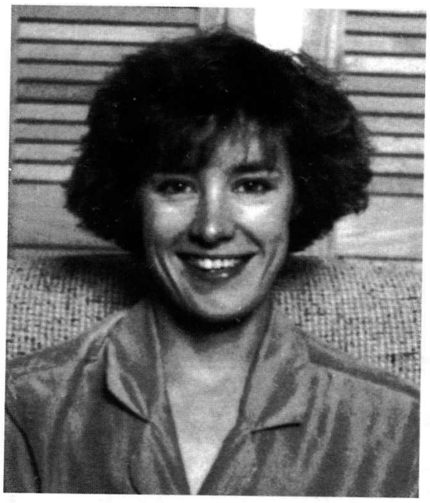

On the Job

Profile of Laurel Martin
Senior Resident of Speechly/Tache Residences
University of Manitoba

The most interesting and challenging aspect of the senior resident position at Speechly/Tache Residences is its dynamism. The part-time, live-in position was created in 1989; I was hired for the 1990/1991 academic year.

Speechly/Tache Residences hires three senior residents, one for each of the 'houses' or separate blocks of the residence complex. Also in each house is one head resident (HR) and a number of resident assistants (RA). An administration organizational chart for Speechly/Tache would show the RA having the most contact with individual residents, the HR as a resource person for the RAs, and the senior resident at the next level. The senior resident is directly responsible to two assistant directors and the director of housing and student life of the University of Manitoba. The RA, HR, and SR positions are to be filled by full-time university students, whereas the other positions are filled by permanent, full-time staff.

In the 1990/1991 academic year, the main responsibilities of the senior resident were in three broad areas: RA training, educational programming, and participating in disciplinary actions. A discussion of the specific duties in each of these areas will follow, concluding with how a home economist is a valuable component to the administration team.

Resident assistant training. The training of resident assistants is a critical component in the smooth functioning of the residence. In October of 1990, the assistant director of Speechly/Tache retired to a maternity leave, assigning RA training to the senior residents. The student staff were trained in areas including communication skills, problem solving skills, house management procedures, emergency procedures, and in current issues to university students such as first aid, homophobia, racism, sexual assault, sexism, and sexuality. An attempt to maintain a proactive approach in the program of RA training was made, although timing of unexpected events and expert speakers often made this difficult.

Related to the training of RAs are other duties of the senior resident such as acting in emergency situations, counselling individual students with personal or academic concerns, and providing a resource for RAs and HRs.

Educational programming. Planning, implementing, and evaluating educational and social programs is the second component of the senior resident responsibilities. The latitude of variation in these programs is great as they are designed to cater to groups of residents and/or to all residence students. A component of educational programming is to assist the RAs in the three programs that they are required to carry out. Different groups and/or individuals within the senior residents and resident assistants organize or supervise the organization of programs such as a Student Group Fair, a seminar about resume writing and interview skills, and an International Students week.

Discipline. Senior residents collaborate with the assistant directors of Speechly/Tache Residences and the Director of Housing and Student Life to determine when disciplinary action is required, what the discipline should be, and how it is to be implemented. Senior residents are directly responsible for dealing with minor infractions such as quiet hour violations, open liquor policy violations, and minor vandalism. Senior residents also participate in discussing the disciplinary action to be taken in cases of major infractions and when the individuals involved are not residence students.

In all three areas, a senior resident interacts with others possessing varying levels of education, from various backgrounds, and with very different agenda. To do this effectively, a senior resident must possess excellent interpersonal and communication skills in order to provide a link in the chain of information distribution. Home economists are educated to do just that.

Many residents and the administration of Speechly/Tache Residence

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Laurel Martin graduated from the University of Manitoba with a Bachelor of Human Ecology in Clothing and Textiles in 1988 and with a Master of Science in Clothing and Textiles in 1991. In the midst of completing these degrees, she has studied at the University of Alberta, University of Delaware, and at the University of Saskatchewan. She is presently in the initial stages of the Interdisciplinary PhD program at the University of Manitoba and has remained at Speechly/Tache as a senior resident for the 1991/1992 academic year.

often refer to the people in the residence as an extended family. It is this which I feel allows a home economist to be a valuable addition to Speechly/Tache. The residence complex is seen as a unit; senior residents are, to an extent, responsible for the effective functioning of the individuals within this unit and its interaction with outside forces. As a senior resident, I strive to ensure that the needs of the resident student are met and that the student development that occurs is appropriate.

As the needs of University students and specifically residence students change, the specific duties of the senior resident will change. The challenge of working with young, intelligent people is a pleasure. ☐

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Relationships In Marriage And The Family (3rd ed.) by Nick Stinnett, James Walters, and Nancy Stinnett. (1991). New York; Macmillan Publishing Co., 484 pages; $51.00.

Relationships in Marriage and the Family is a textbook suitable for an introductory course in marriage and family. According to the authors, the book is designed to help readers understand themselves and others so that they can use the information to improve their interaction with others and achieve the kind of healthy, happy relationships they desire. The authors describe it as a roadmap for achieving a satisfying marriage and family life. Based on a lifecycle model, the emphasis is on personal growth and development.

Topics by chapter include relationships, choosing partners, marriage, marriage relationships, changing roles of men and women, communication, psychological games, marital conflict, sexuality, family planning, pregnancy, relationships with children, financial management, relatives, middle and later years, divorce and remarriage, and future families. Each of the 17 chapters includes several black and white photographs, a summary, and questions for discussion. The reading level is relatively low. The emphasis is on healthy families in traditional lifestyles involving marriage and children.

The major drawback of the book is its American content. The emphasis is on life in the United States. References are to American studies, American lifestyles, and American laws. This makes it inappropriate for Canadian use. For example, material referring to medical insurance, financing of housing, family and divorce law, and legislation regarding consumer rights does not apply in the Canadian context. Although the approach used by the authors may be appealing, it is difficult to recommend this book to a Canadian audience especially when there are many excellent books available about Canadian families.

Reviewed by:
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Bestfeeding: Getting Breastfeeding Right for You by Mary Refrew, Chloe Fisher, and Suzanne Arms. (1990). Berkeley, CA: Celestial Arts, 225 pages; $18.95.

> "Like learning to dance, breastfeeding takes practice and rhythm because there are two of you doing it together."

This is just one example of how the authors stress the simplicity of breastfeeding throughout this practical step-by-step guide. The stated objectives are to help mothers and their supporters to get breastfeeding right and to show the basics of breastfeeding which require only the mother and the baby. Both goals are met in a uniquely positive and supportive manner which clearly presents the "need-to-knows" of breastfeeding.

Each chapter contains readable information and explanations. Excellent photographs and line drawings which supplement the text are not only accurate but beautifully illustrate the major points. The largest chapter, titled "Starting to Breastfeed: Getting the Basics Right", is packed full of useful information, which is broken into smaller sections making it less imposing. Three major topics are dealt with in this chapter. In "Positioning Matters", correct posture, body positioning, and latching onto the breast are presented. The photographs and drawings assist the reader to differentiate between recommended positioning and that which may lead to problems with breastfeeding. The importance of breast stimulation in the development and maintenance of the milk supply is explained in the section called "Milk Supply and Release". In "Milk and Milk Composition" the importance of not stopping a feeding session too early is emphasized. The compositional differences between foremilk and hindmilk are presented to support adequate length of feedings. This chapter uses a checklist for a summary. The basic steps are also summarized in English and Spanish with line drawings — a unique educational tool.

Shorter, while no less interesting, chapters deal with many of the biological and emotional factors involved with breastfeeding. There is a chapter devoted to the needs of the breastfeeding mother. This contains an excellent explanation of milk expression by hand and pump. A list of breast pump manufacturers is included at the end of the book to assist the reader in the purchase or rental of a breastpump. In "Problems: Their Causes and Solutions" and "Why Women have Problems with Breastfeeding", the positive tone supports the message that prevention is better than cure. The management of problems, if they do occur, is carefully outlined. The use of a list format for signs and symptoms works well as a trouble-shooting guide. A plus of these chapters is the discussion of the blame which often accompanies a problem, should one arise. The importance of not laying blame is clearly presented. Other chapters deal with the reasons women want to breastfeed, modern myths about breastfeeding, and case studies of seven women who have successfully breastfed.

The reader should be able to quickly find exactly what is wanted by checking the easy-to-use index or the index of commonly asked questions. The readability of this book is further enhanced through the use of a glossary of terms. The authors have also included a list of suggested books and a worldwide list of breastfeeding organizations. As well, associations supporting special needs infants are listed.

This book will be a valuable resource for every woman who has chosen to breastfeed. It will serve equally well anyone who wishes to support and assist breastfeeding mothers, whether a friend, family member, or male partner. All health workers involved in maternal-child health care would find this book helpful when counselling breastfeeding pairs.

Reviewed by:
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Introduction to Early Childhood Education by Verna Hildebrand. (1991). New York; Macmillan Publishing Company, 591 pages; $38.00.

The success of Verna Hildebrand's *Introduction to Early Childhood Education*, recently issued in its fifth edition, and its widespread use as a textbook and manual can be attributed in large part to the comprehensive scope of the book and its attention to detail and sound principles.

The integration of child developmental principles into meaningful program planning for young children is perhaps the book's greatest strength. Fresh examples and program ideas gleaned from a wide range of practices observed in the field inject new interest in this edition.

The book has three main sections: Part One is an overview of the field of early childhood education and the techniques employed by successful practitioners for effective interaction with young children. Part Two contains a balance of theory and practical application. It emphasizes the importance of planning appropriate activities that complement growth and development patterns of the individual child. In recognition of the increased demand for infant and toddler care, two substantial chapters have been devoted to promoting total development at this stage of growth. Part Three focusses on teacher-parent relationships and scans the global picture of early education across cultures and continents. The final chapter examines the state of the profession at present within the context of past practices and future directions.

The book will be particularly useful as a resource for students entering the field of early childhood education and faced with planning developmentally appropriate activities and play environments for infants through to school age children. However, the readability of the book and the liberal use of photographs that capture and illustrate the essence of childhood and the wonderment of learning at various stages of development make this an excellent resource for anyone who has anything to do with children from the beginning practitioner and the first-time parent to the more seasoned professional seeking to take a new look at the basics of child care.

Reviewed by:
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Lethbridge Community College
Lethbridge, Alberta

Gender, Family, and Economy: The Triple Overlap by Rae Lesser Blumberg, ed. (1991). Newbury Park; Sage Publications, 311 pages.

Rae Lesser Blumberg has selected twelve articles which articulate theory and discuss research on the topic of gender inequality. Whether in the industrialized countries or in the third world, women universally assume the primary responsibility for care of the home and of the children. Women continue to assume this responsibility when they work outside the home. They make less money than men and do jobs which earn them less status. When life is difficult, as it is for women in the lower classes of industrial societies and for women of the third world it is not too difficult to understand that women do not have the necessary resources with which to change their situation. But the well educated, high income earners of industrial societies are still acting as unequal partners in the home.

This book provides an intriguing array of sociological and economic analyses of the issue of gender inequality. Several authors note that the obvious biological difference between the sexes can never completely explain the subordination of women over the course of history. Blumberg presents the theory that women must have some control over family income in order to attain status and power in the home. Whether working within the informal economy or actually earning a wage, many women do not have this control. Men commonly contribute a much smaller percentage of their income to the household than do women. A purely economical analyses of income pooling is presented by Treas, wherein she uses transaction cost considerations to explain that income pooling is more efficient than separate purses in the context of the family.

The concluding article is a stimulating discussion of the concept of gender. Men and women are vastly different in the way they behave and in their emotional expression. If inequality is to be overcome, say the authors, we must first understand how it is sustained in institutional and social arrangements.

Reviewed by:
Charlene Hay, MEd, PHEc
Homemaker
Edmonton, Alberta

Economic Decisions for Consumers (Second edition) by Don R. Leet and Joann Driggers. (1990). New York; Macmillan Publishing Company, 669 pages; $40.00 Hardcover.

This is an excellent multidimensional and comprehensive textbook. It is suitable for college level consumer studies courses; it may also serve as a reference in similar introductory university level courses. Moreover, the straightforward, understandable language style makes the text accessible to any interested consumer.

Effective allocation of resources and consumer responsibility are emphasized. A broad range of relevant matters is addressed, including the general principles of decision making, life cycles, life styles, economics, finance and credit, as well as a focus upon consumer protection issues. These principles are applied to the particular areas of clothing, food, housing, automobiles, and energy. Chapters on healthcare, investments, and insurance/retirement planning concentrate upon longer-term planning. This second edition has also introduced environmental, energy, and global interdependence issues. Other features include an appendix indicating consumer service agencies and an extensive glossary. Each chapter is set out clearly with headings, marginal comments, diagrams, tables, graphs, and exercises and each is concluded with a summary, review questions, and a current list of further readings.

This first rate text does, however, have one major drawbrack: it was designed for a United States market and as such, it is based upon information, economic, social, and legal frameworks which are useless for a Canadian audience. The text nevertheless provides a practical foundation of basic concepts, and its timely dimensions of international and environmental issues could definitely bolster a class syllabus. As the basis of a course taught in Canada, the text would require much additional supplementary support and is thus unsuitable on its own. In light of the scarcity of comparable Canadian texts, perhaps the authors may wish to consider a Canadian version? Perhaps instead, members of the extremely talented CHEA organization will collaborate to create another unique text based upon this notable example?

Reviewed by:
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Montreal, Quebec.

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IFHE ... In Focus

Regards Sur La FIEF

Power to Change: Choosing Options for the Future

Le pouvoir de changer: des options pour le futur

Lila E. Engberg

In July, 1992, the International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE) will hold its' XVIIth Congress in Hannover, Germany. During this Congress, the Family Resource Management Program Committee of the IFHE will present a plenary session entitled "Using Up Our Future" (Muir & Nodenes, 1991). Committee chairperson Anne Muir of the United Kingdom has urged the committee and indeed all home economists to become leaders of public thinking about home and family and about the resources needed to sustain a good life for all people. According to Muir (1991), we are obliged to develop much deeper concerns about consumption, conservation, and the nature of economic development. This article summarizes one of the

En juillet 1992, la Fédération Internationale pour l'Economie Familiale (FIEF) tiendra son XVII$^{\text{ième}}$ congrès à Hanovre (Allemagne). Durant ce congrès, le Comité des Programmes de Gestion des Ressources Familiales de la FIEF présentera une session plénière intitulée "Utilisons notre Futur" (Muir et Nodenes, 1991). La Présidente du Comité, Anne Muir, du Royaume Uni, a invité ce Comité, ainsi que toutes les économistes familiales à devenir face au public des promoteurs d'une pensée du foyer et de la famille et des ressources nécessaires pour améliorer la vie de chacun. Selon Muir (1991), nous devons travailler plus en profondeur les sujets traitant la consommation, la conservation et les bases du développement économique. Cet article résume l'une des sessions parallèles

International Year of the Family **1994** **Année Internationale de la Famille**

Design reflects the family at heart of society

Le logo symbolise une famille au sein de la société

Le Logo, créé par Catherine LITTASAY-FOLLIER, artiste suisse de renom vivant à VIENNE, servira à sensibiliser l'opinion publique sur les buts et les enjeux de l'anée

The design, created by Catherine LITTASAY-ROLLIER, a well known Swiss artist residint in VIENNA, will be used in promoting public awareness of the goals and purposes of the Year

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Lila E. Engberg, PhD (Cornell) is a former faculty member, Department of Family Studies, University of Guelph. She is CHEA's representative to IFHE and member of the Family Resource Management Committee, Chair of the International Development Committee of the Ontario Home Economics Association, and is also involved in private consulting.

Ancienne de l'Université de Guelph, département des Etudes Familiales, **Lila E. Engberg**, PhD (Cornell), représente l'ACEF à la FIEF, est membre du Comité des Ressources Familiales. Elle est aussi Présidente du Comité de Développement International de l'Association d'Economie Familiale de l'Ontario et consultante auprès d'organismes privés.

concurrent sessions which will follow the Family Resource Management plenary session in Hannover.

As a profession, we have the power to change, to collaborate, and to take the actions needed to sustain the human family and our habitat. Vaines and Wilson (1986) have suggested that home economists become reflective professionals who act on behalf of the values which we claim: human rights, satisfaction of human needs, and a sustainable future for all the world's people. They recognize that "providing services means being involved in action," but they also indicate that ". . . the kinds of actions we take demand more serious consideration than they did in the past" (p. 153). Margaret Arcus, IFHE Vice-President of the Region of the Americas, has challenged home economists to become involved in value transformation (Arcus, 1985). Transformation of individual, institutional, societal, and cultural values is a daunting task, and can only be accomplished by raising critical questions about the desirability of changes taking place in today's world. Who benefits and who loses? What do we know about the impact on families of major political and social changes taking place around us? What are the ethical choices?

Impact of Globalization

Currently, many individuals and families throughout the world are experiencing stress because of global restructuring. Globalization of the economy means that multinational business corporations can now operate in ways which are beyond the control of national governments. For example, foreign-owned corporations have located their assembly plants along the Mexican border in order to take advantage of low-wage labor, relaxed standards for plant operation, and potentials for higher profits (Barlow, 1990). Throughout the world, financial and industrial activities, military arms, labor, and information flow across national borders, and many communities are in turmoil because of business losses, unemployment and out-migration, war, environmental degradation, and other powerful changes at the macro level.

In some parts of the world, migration to rapidly growing cities is creating alarming housing, transport, food distribution, and sanitation problems. In the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, families suffer hardships as they attempt to cope with a triple crisis: a crisis in philosophy, in political and economic change, and in their relationships to society and the state (Brzezinski, 1991). The international debt crisis has led to the adoption of structural adjustment policies by many governments. Policies imposed in Africa have resulted in steep declines in real wages, increased production of export crops, domestic food shortages, and drastic cuts in education and health services (ECEJ, 1990, p. 11). At the same time, Africa suffers from high levels of military spending, and according to Sparks (1990), ". . . is the third largest recipient of world arms transfers, behind the Middle East and Europe (p. 13). In many places, this military aid has bolstered political alignments and armed conflicts. Canadians, too, are experiencing structural adjustment policies due to high levels of international and domestic debt. According to a report from the Vanier Institute of the Family (1990), the incomes of Canadian families have not grown in real terms since 1979. The value of the minimum wage has shrunk, and close to one million Canadian children live in poverty.

Choosing to Share Our Power

Most nations of the world seem to be preoccupied with goals such as industrial expansion, technological inventions,

qui suivra la séance plénière intitulée "Gestion des Ressources Familiales" à Hanovre.

Dans le cadre de notre profession, nous avons le pouvoir de changer les choses, de collaborer à un mieux et de prendre les mesures nécessaires pour améliorer la condition humaine et de l'habitat. Vaines et Wilson (1990) recommandent aux économistes familiales de devenir des professionnelles à part entière en oeuvrant sur les valeurs suivantes: droits humains, satisfaction des besoins essentiels et futur assuré pour chaque personne du monde entier. Si elles reconnaissent que "fournir des services signifie y être impliqué", elles soulignent aussi que "ces diverses actions demandent une considération plus profonde que dans le passé" (p. 153). Margaret Arcus, Vice-Présidente de la FIEF pour la Région Amérique, a mis au défi les économistes familiales de s'impliquer dans la transformation des valeurs (Arcus, 1985). La transformation des valeurs individuelles, institutionnelles, sociales et culturelles est une oeuvre décourageante qui ne sera uniquement réalisée qu'en mettant en valeur les questions essentielles au sujet du réel désir de changer les choses dans le monde d'aujourd'hui. Qui y gagne et qui y perd? Que savons-nous de l'impact dans les familles des importants changements politiques et sociaux? Quels sont les choix moraux?

Impact d'une politique globale

Actuellement beaucoup d'individus et de familles dans le monde éprouvent des difficultés face à la restructuration globale. Cette vue globale de l'économie signifie que les multinationales peuvent désormais opérer hors du contrôle des gouvernements nationaux. Par exemple des compagnies étrangères ont établi leurs usines de montage le long de la frontière mexicaine afin de bénéficier d'une main-d'oeuvre sous payée, de normes flexibles d'implantation et des possibilités de profits élévés (Barlow, 1990). Partout dans le monde, les activités financières et industrielles, les armes militaires, la main d'oeuvre et l'information traversent les frontières nationales, et de nombreuses communautés sont agitées par les pertes du commerce, le chômage de l'exode, la guerre, la dégradation de l'environnement et autres puissants changements sur le plan macroéconomique.

Dans certaines parties du monde, la migration vers les villes s'accroissant trop rapidement engendre des situations alarmantes quant au logement, au transport, à la distribution alimentaire et sanitaire. En Union Soviétique et ne Europe de l'Est, les familles souffrent de privation car elles doivent surpasser une triple crise : crise philosophique, changement politique et économique et relations de l'individu avec la société et l'état (Brezezinski, 1991). L'endettement international a contraint de nombreux gouvernements à adopter des politiques d'adjustement structurel. Les politiques imposées en Afrique ont entraîné une baisse réelle des salaires, une production accrue des cérérales à l'exportation, une disette alimentaire et des coupures rigoureuses dans les services d'éducation et de santé (ECEJ, 1990, p. 11). Conjointement l'Afrique souffre du niveau élevé de ses dépenses militaires, et selon Sparks (1990), ". . . est le troisième bénéficiaire des transferts mondiaux d'armes, derrière le Moyen Orient de l'Europe". Dans bien des pays, cette aide militaire a soutenu des oppositions politiques et des conflits armés. Les canadiens aussi ont eu recours à des politiques d'ajustement structurel à cause du caractère élevé de la dett extérieure et nationale. Selon un rapport de l'Institut Vanier de la Famille (1990, p. 7), les revenus des familles canadiennes n'ont pas augmenté en terme réel depuis 1979. La valeur du salaire minimum a diminué et a

economic growth, competition and efficiency, and to be less concerned about human and environmental consequences. At a Canadian conference on ethics and technology, McDonald (1989) posed questions about the ". . . ways in which we as a culture and society authoritatively decide about which technologies to encourage or discourage . . ." (p. 119). Home economists need to ask similar questions and to recognize that we cannot act alone in choosing what we, as professionals, think is best. Neither can we hand over authoritative power to the so-called technical experts.

What is required is the *sharing of power*. McDonald (1989) states that "insider" experts are those generally found in high places, aligned with their own institutions. "Outsider" experts are the citizen coalitions who make moral judgments about various courses of action but who may lack needed knowledge and expertise. In order to share power, McDonald claims that we need to combine ethics with expertise. To hear what ordinary people say about their lives and their needs and to facilitate discussion, ethical choices and appropriate action at several levels (household, community, national, international) is to empower ordinary people.

Grass-roots involvement and action is a beginning step to such empowerment. Choices can be made by the people themselves in their own local communities. In Guelph, for example, the "Matrix Affordable Homes for the Disadvantaged" group initiated a 20-unit apartment development which was completed in 1989, and they are now working on a third proposal for affordable apartments. A multi-disciplinary group called "The Food Chain" is trying to change policies related to food distribution systems and food banks for the needy in Toronto. Nova Scotia home economist Elizabeth Shears is helping the poor to gain advocacy skills which will enable them to gain access to nutrition information and better diets (Shears, 1991). Through collective action within their own environments, people are gaining the *power to change* — to change their thinking about themselves, to enlarge their options, and to change the systems which impact on their lives and on the lives of others.

The Power of Families

Actions by the smallest of social institutions — the household or family, multiplied several thousand times over — can have an impact for good or for bad. For example, the natural environment can be desecrated or conserved by private consumption practices. While families can have a major impact, they may not have the power to bring about behavioral changes within their own households. They must develop a community of support, find leaders, ask questions, seek expert advice and information, examine alternatives, and then develop strategies for action — whether to buy or to alter their lifestyles or not, whether to "to reduce, reuse, or recycle", whether to form citizen coalitions which might help them.

Specialists in nutrition, home economics, or other fields of applied science do not have exclusive power over knowledge. Ordinary people themselves also have knowledge, skills, and experiences which have value. They can be encouraged to become more critical, to judge "what ought to be", and to use their own power for the enhancement of human life. Reflective practice can become a long-term interactive strategy both for the people and for the professionals who serve them.

conduit un million d'enfants canadiens à vivre dans la pauvreté.

Partager notre pouvoir : un choix à faire

La plupart des pays du monde semblent être préoccupés par des buts tels que l'expansion industrielle, les inventions technologiques, la croissance économique, la compétition et l'efficacité, et l'être beaucoup moins des conséquences humaines et environnementales. Lors d'une conférence canadienne sur la morale et la technologie, McDonald (1989) a posé des questions au sujet ". . . des moyens par lesquels nous, en tant que culture et société de référence, décidons quelles technologies soutenir ou décourager . . ." (p. 119). Les économistes familiales ont besoin de se poser les mêmes questions et de reconnaître que nous ne pouvons décider seules ce que, comme professionnelles, nous pensons être le mieux. Nous ne pouvons pas non plus laisser le pouvoir d'autorité aux soit-disant experts techniques.

L'impératif est de *partager le pouvoir*. McDonald (1989) affirme que les experts "internes" sont celles généralement trouvées à des postes élevés, avec vues conformes à leurs propres institutions. Les experts "externes" sont des groupements de citoyens qui apportent en jugement moral sur diverses causes mais qui manquent de la connaissance et la compétence nécessaire. Afin de partager le pouvoir, McDonald pense que nous devons associer morale et compétence. Pour comprendre ce que les gens simples disent de leurs vies et de leurs besoins, et pour encourager la discussion, des choix moraux et des actions spécifiques à différents échelons (familial, communautaire, national, international) devraient donner plus de poids aux personnes de la rue.

Une participation et une action sur le terrain forment la première étape d'une augmentation de pouvoir. Des choix peuvent être faits par les individus eux-mêmes au sein de leurs communautés locales. Par exemple à Guelph, le groupe "Maisons Abordables Matrix pour les Démunis" a mis en place un projet de 20 appartements qui a été terminé en 1989, et un troisième projet de ce type est à l'étude. Le groupe multi-disciplinaire "la Chaîne Alimentaire" essaie de changer les politiques reliées aux systèmes de distribution alimentaire et de banque alimentaire pour les nécessiteux à Toronto. Elizabeth Shears, économiste familiale en Nouvelle Ecosse apprend aux pauvres à acquérir de bonnes aptitudes qui leur permettront de comprendre les bases de la nutrition et à avoir un meilleur régime alimentaire (Shears, 1991). Par le biais d'actions collectives dans leur environnement respectif, les populations accroissent leur pouvoir de changer — changer leur pensée à propos d'eux-mêmes, augmenter les possibilités de choix, et changer les systèmes qui conditionnent leur vie et celle des autres.

Le pouvoir des familles

Les actions menées par les plus petites institutions sociales — au niveau des ménages ou des familles, multipliées par plusieurs milliers — peuvent avoir une influence bénéfique ou néfaste. Par exemple, l'environnement naturel peut être détruit ou préservé en fonction des pratiques de consommation individuelles. Même si les familles peuvent avoir une influence importante, elles peuvent ne pas avoir le pouvoir d'apporter des changements de comportements au sein même de leurs propres foyers. Elles doivent organiser un comité de soutien, trouver des responsables, poser les problèmes, trouver des conseils avisés et des renseignements, examiner les possibilités et ensuite mettre au point une stratégie d'action — soit pour acheter ou modifier leurs style de vie ou non, soit pour "réduire, réutiliser ou recycler" ou encore pour former des associations qui puissent les aider.

In some environments, enabling changes to take place is difficult. Power is political, and people-power can be threatening to those in control. As well, many people may be fearful of the leadership, and they have thus become powerless and overdependent upon the decisions made by others. Families all over the world have lost power and control over product decisions, over human services, and their children's welfare. They have become overdependent upon paid employment and the products of industry and overdependent upon technical answers. Many have become marginalized and confused, caught in a controversy over work versus family, large scale versus small scale.

Recommendations for Professional Practice

What can be done? Change is never easy, but as human service professionals, it is up to us to change our perceptions of what is possible. We have the power to question, to listen, to collaborate, and to create an environment which is open to change at local, national, and international levels. In order to do that, we need to develop new approaches and new skills.

The approach which is recommended for the home economics profession is the practical problem-based approach. This approach involves participants (the researchers, educators, field workers, and ordinary people) in critical thinking about questions and answers. It assumes that professionals do not have all of the answers nor all of the authority. Home economists become collaborators at several levels, sometimes leading but also willing to be led. In practice, they move through stages from generating interest, to issue analysis and understanding, to changing personal and family values and practices, and to emancipatory actions on behalf of others.

One component of action may be to acquire new technical skills, but those skills are not the whole answer. The requirements for both leaders and participants are:

- *Creative and imaginative thinking,* in order to collect information and develop a number of reasonable alternatives and to consider the consequences of each alternative;
- *Critical thinking,* in order to assess and reflect on the accuracy and reliability of the information and the criteria developed for evaluating information and proposed actions;
- *Decision-making skills,* in order to make a choice and to begin to take action; and
- *Cooperative interaction skills,* in order to gain extensive knowledge and support from a number of sources.

However, if no choices are brought to the level of awareness, then no decisions are made. If no ethical dilemmas come to the surface, day-to-day routines and practices are followed without question. Thus, an essential step in gaining power to change is awareness – the awareness of a problem situation and an awareness that change is possible.

Influencing the International Community

Global changes are complex and difficult to anticipate. But home economists can become more active participants on behalf of families on the national and international levels. Interaction is possible through IFHE representatives to the United Nations and to other intergovernmental organizations such as the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

Les spécialistes en nutrition, en économie familiale ou dans d'autres domaines des sciences appliquées n'ont pas l'exclusivité du pouvoir des connaissances. Tout un chacun a son propre savoir, ses aptitudes et ses expériences qui ont une valeur. Chacun doit être encouragé à devenir plus critique, à évaluer "ce qu'il se fait", et à utiliser son pouvoir personnel pour l'amélioration de la condition humaine. Des périodes de réflexion peuvent devenir une stratégie interactive à long terme à la fois pour les gens et pour les professionnelles qui les aident.

Dans certaines régions, la possibilité de faire des changements est limitée. Le pouvoir est politique, et les personnes responsables peuvent être menacées par ceux qui les gouvernent. De plus, beaucoup de personnes peuvent craindre de prendre des responsabilités, et perdent ainsi pouvoir et indépendance face aux décisions prises par d'autres. Dans le monde entier, des familles ont perdu pouvoir et contrôle sur des décisions concernant la production, les services sociaux et sur le bien-être de leurs enfants. Elles sont devenues assujetties aux grilles des salaires et aux productions industrielles et comptent trop sur des réponses technologiques. Beaucoup se sont retrouvées en marge et désorientées, enfermées dans le dilemme du travail par rapport à la famille, à grande et petite échelle.

Recommandations aux professionnelles

Que faut-il faire? Modifier n'est jamais facile, mais en tant que professionnelles de services sociaux, il nous échoit si nous le voulons, d'ajuster notre vision de ce qui est réalisable. Nous avons la possibilité d'interroger, d'écouter, de collaborer, et de créer un cadre ouvert à tout changement au niveau local, national et international. Afin de le réaliser, nous devons élaborer de nouvelles approches et compétences.

La procédure qui doit être utilisée par les professionnelles de l'économie familiale est celle d'une approche au cas par cas. Cette approche exige des participants (chercheurs, éducateurs, travailleurs sociaux et citoyens), une jugement critique quant aux questions et aux réponses. Ceci suppose que les professionnelles n'ont pas en leur possession toutes les réponses ni toute la compétence. Les économistes familiales deviennent des collaboratrices sur plusieurs degrés, dirigeant quelquefois, mais voulant aussi se laisser diriger. En réalité, elles évoluent à différents niveaux du suscitement d'intérêt, à la propagation d'analyse et de connaissance, à la transformation des valeurs et des habitudes individuelles et familiales, et à la promotion des actions au nom des autres.

Une composante d'action peut exiger l'acquisition de nouvelles compétences techniques, mais elles ne constituent pas toute la réponse. Les impératifs pour les dirigeants et les participants sont d'avoir:

- *Une pensée créative et imaginative,* afin d'obtenir l'information, de développer un nombre satisfaisant de choix et d'évaluer les conséquences de chacun d'eux;
- *Une pensée critique* pour estimer et réfléchir sur l'exactitude et la fiabilité de cette information et des critères développés pour tester les renseignements et proposer des actions;
- *Des aptitudes à prendre des décisions* pour faire un choix et commencer à agir; et
- *Des aptitudes à travailler en groupe,* afin d'obtenir une plus large connaissance et des appuis à divers niveaux.

Cependant, si aucun choix n'est porté à un niveau de prise de conscience, aucune décision ne sera prise. Si aucun problème d'éthique ne surgit, les habitudes et routines quotidiennes se poursuivent inconstestablement. Par conséquent,

and UNICEF in New York, UNESCO in Paris, FAO in Rome, the United Nations office in Vienna, and the Council of Europe in Strasbourg (IFHE, 1991). Doris Badir, IFHE President, has prepared a policy statement to help us plan actions in Canada for 1994 and beyond (Badir, 1991). The CHEA office has initiated contacts with the Vanier Institute for the Family and Family Services Canada. What do we want to do? The choice is up to us.

Conclusion

Business and industry are "going global", and the freedom to move, to trade, and to do business around the world is one kind of freedom. Freedom to participate more fully in the economy and in political decisions is another. Participation gives ordinary people the "power to change" — to change their own livelihood and lifestyle and to change the systems which have an impact on daily life. The home economics profession may need to increase its own participation skills before it can enable families to do the same, and new sets of skills, and new ways of practising our profession will be needed. Members of the Family Resource Management Committee of the International Federation for Home Economics are asking all of us to question the allocation of resources in today's world and to participate and take ethical actions in support of a sustainable future for all people.

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une étape importante est de prendre conscience — conscience d'une situation critique et conscience qu'une situation critique et conscience qu'une changement est possible.

Influence de la communauté internationale

Les changements généraux sont complexes et difficiles à prévoir. Cependant les économistes familiales peuvent devenir de intervenantes plus actives au nom des familles sur le plan national et international. L'inter-action est possible grâce aux représentantes de la FIEF aux Nations Unies et aux autres organisations intergouvernementales comme le Conseil Economique et Social (ECOSOC), l'UNICEF à New York, l'UNESCO à Paris, la FAO à Rome, le Bureau des Nations Unites à Vienne et le Conseil de l'Europe à Strasbourg (FIEF, 1991). Doris Badir, Présidente de la FIEF, a élaboré une stratégie politique pour nous aider à planifier les travaux au Canada à partir de 1994 (Badir, 1991). Le siège de l'ACEF a déjà pris des contacts avec l'Institut Vanier de la Famille et avec les Services à la Famille Canada. Que voulons-nous faire ? Les choix dépendent de nous.

Conclusion

Le commerce et l'industrie "fonctionnent bien ensemble", et l'indépendance de mouvement, de faire du commerce, et des affaires à travers le monde est une sorte de liberté. La possibilité de participer plus concrètement aux décisions économiques et politiques en est une autre. La participation donne à chacun "le pouvoir de changer" — changer son propre comportement, son style de vie, et de modifier les structures qui ont un impact sur la vie quotidienne. Notre profession d'Economiste Familiale a besoin d'améliorer ses propres techniques de participation avant de pouvoir aider les familles à faire de même. De nouvelles compétences professionnelles et de nouvelles méthodes de travail nous seront nécessaires. Les membres du Comité de Gestion des Ressources Familiales de la Fédération Internationale pour l'Economie Familiale demande à chacune d'entre nous de travailler sur la répartition des ressources dans le monde actuel, de prendre part à des actions morales pour donner un future prometteur à chaque être humain.

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Graduate Research in Canadian Universities
Répertoire des recherches dans les universités canadiennes

Compilation of master's theses and doctoral dissertations in home economics and related areas completed July 1, 1990 to June 30, 1991.

Une compilation de mémoires et de thèses en économie familiale et en des domaines affiliés complétés entre le 1^{er} juillet, 1990 et le 30 juin, 1991.

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1991-92 Undergraduate Enrolment Data

University Programs in Home Economics and Related Units

Name of University	Undergraduate Program	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Part-time Special	Total
Acadia	Consumer Studies	–	–	2	1	–	3
	Family Studies	–[1]	–	1	2	–	3
	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	–[1]	1	3	3	–	8
	Nutrition & Dietetics)	15	10	13	27	–	65
Alberta	Clothing — Textiles	11	14	20	37	–	82
	Family Studies	10	19	19	43	–	91
	Nutrition & Dietetics	34	62	43	80	16[2]	235
British Columbia	Family Studies	–	–	23	14	–	37
	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	18	25	18	16	–	77
	Nutrition & Dietetics	15	40	66	39	–	160
Guelph	Applied Human Nutrition						212[3]
	Child Studies						366
	Consumer Studies						198
	Family & Social Relations						219
	Gerontology						99
	No major						19
	Commerce	356	373	219	188	37	1173
Laval	Consumer Studies	143	119	105	–	59	426[4]
	Family Studies	15	19	–	–	12	46
	Nutrition & Dietetics	53	48	47	36	–	184
Manitoba	Clothing & Textiles	53	32	33	35	–	153
	Family Studies	53	32	37	53	–	175
	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	16	4	6	6	–	32
	Home Economics Education	6	6	1	11	–	24
	Nutrition & Dietetics	102	47	45	55	7	256
McGill	B–Sc						235[3]
Memorial	Nutrition & Dietetics	5	4	16	23	4	52
Moncton	Family Studies	4	3	4	–	1	12
	Nutrition & Dietetics	16	23	14	15	1	69
Montreal	Nutrition & Dietetics	63	42	46	43	5	199
Mount Saint Vincent	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	9	17	28	26	12	92
	Home Economics Education	–	–	3	6	–	9
	Nutrition & Dietetics	19	36	54	37	7	153
New Brunswick	Home Economics Education	15	23	22	12	3	75
PEI	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	20	12	11	7	–	50
	Nutrition & Dietetics				10	–	10
Ryerson	Nutrition & Dietetics	65	85	62	61	–	273
Saskatchewan	Nutrition & Dietetics	36	30	33	27	10	136
	Home Economics Education						14
St. Francis Xavier	Consumer Studies			1	1	–	2
	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	22	14	5	9	4	54
	Nutrition & Dietetics			10	13	–	23
Toronto	Nutrition & Dietetics	–	50	55	90	28	223
Western	Clothing & Textiles	7	3	6	5	–	21
	Home Economics (General or comprehensive)	2	3	1	2	2	10
	Nutrition & Dietetics	26	42	35	27	1	131
Windsor	Family Studies						90[3]

1. Being phased out.
2. Special students, not specifically N & D.
3. Figures for each year not available.
4. Certificate included in total.

1991–92
Graduate Enrolment Data
University Programs in Home Economics and Related Units

Name of University	Graduate Program	Full–time	Part–time	Total
Alberta	Master's Degree			
	Clothing & Textiles	16	–	16
	Family Studies	16	4	20
	Food & Nutrition	15	–	15
	PhD			
	Clothing & Textiles	3	–	3
	Family Studies	3	–	3
	Food & Nutrition	5	–	5
British Columbia[1]				
Guelph	Master's Degree			
	Family Studies	25	3	28
	Food & Nutrition	11	–	11
	PhD			
	Family Studies	6	1	7
	Food & Nutrition	7	–	7
Laval	Master's Degree			
	Food & Nutrition	11	3	14
	PhD			
	Food & Nutrition	3	–	3
Manitoba	Master's Degree			
	Clothing & Textiles	10	3	13
	Family Studies	16	7	23
	Food & Nutrition	12	1	13
	PhD (2)			
	Clothing & Textiles			1
	Family Studies			1
	Food & Nutrition			6
McGill (1)				
Memorial	PhD			
	Food & Nutrition	1	–	1
Moncton	Master's Degree			
	Family Studies	1	1	2
	Food & Nutrition	1	1	2
Montreal	Master's Degree			
	Food & Nutrition	44	11	55
	PhD			
	Food & Nutrition	9	–	9
Mount Saint Vincent	Master's Degree[2]			30
New Brunswick	Master's Degree			
	Home Ec. Education	3	–	3
Sasktachewan	Master's Degree			
	Food & Nutrition	4	–	4
	PhD			
	Food & Nutrition	2	–	2
Toronto	Master's Degree			
	Food & Nutrition	59	4	63
	PhD			
	Food & Nutrition	12	1	13

[1] Data not available.

[2] Data broken down into full–time/part–time not available.

Guide for Authors

Canadian Home Economics Journal

Contributions to the Journal

The *Journal* welcomes articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest. Themes and submission deadlines are printed periodically in the *Journal.* Authors are encouraged to submit articles related to the themes but should not feel bound by this directive.

Depending on the nature of the paper, authors may make their submissions to either the general interest articles or to the research (refereed) section.

Contributions that will be considered for inclusion in the research section are: reports about empirical research, review papers related to topics of current interest, research notes on particular issues, or theoretical forums related to theory development in an area of interest to home economists.

Manuscripts in English and/or French are welcome. Submission of a paper to the *Journal* implies that the paper is original and has not been published or currently submitted for publication elsewhere. If copyright material is used, it is the responsibility of the author to give appropriate credit and to obtain permission for reproduction. The original copy of the written permission must accompany the submission. Manuscripts not conforming to the stated guidelines will be returned to the author(s) without consideration.

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Research (Refereed) Section

The goal of this section of the *Journal* is to provide researchers concerned with the well-being of families and individuals an opportunity to publish in a refereed Canadian journal. An authors submission of a research paper implies that the paper is based on original research and not published elsewhere. All articles are submitted for external review. The criteria used include:

- Focus on a significant problem in home economics.
- Scholarly report of new knowledge, confirmation or refinement of known facts,
- presentation of a critical review of literature, development of a theoretical framework, etc.
- Logical interpretation of data.
- In the case of empirical research, evidence of sound research methodology in the conduct of the research.
- Well organized and written in a scholarly style.
- Form and length which makes publishing feasible.
- Length limited to 2,000 to 3,000 words excluding references which may be as extensive as required. 8-12 pages

General Interest Articles/ Letters to the Editor (Reader Forum)

All manuscripts are read by the editors and many are submitted to external reviewers. Criteria for acceptance include:

- Content that is original, addresses current topics, provides fresh insights, or new information.
- Clear, concise, logical presentation that will appeal to a constituent group of CHEA.
- Appropriate documentation of sources and conformity to the style guides adopted for the *Journal.*
- Manuscripts for articles limited to 1,500 to 2,500 words and letters to the editor to 300 words.

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- American Psychological Association. (1983). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
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- *Gage Canadian Dictionary*

The submission should include the following sections: title page, abstract, text of the manuscript, references, tables (one per page), figures and other graphics (one per page), titles for figures and graphics (on a separate page), acknowledgements (on a separate page).

In preparing the manuscript adherence to the following details will speed consideration of the manuscript.

Title Page

Because papers are or may be submitted anonymously to reviewers, the following information should appear only on the title page:

- Title of paper — be concise.
- A short biography, including as a minimum, name and present position of author(s); degrees held (including granting institution).
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- Name, phone number, and address of author to whom correspondence about the paper should be addressed.

Abstract

The abstract page follows the title page and starts with the complete title of the paper but does not contain the name(s) of the author(s). It should be:

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The author is fully responsible for correct sentence structure, good English/French, and accurate spelling. In order to ensure that the paper will be understandable to all readers, it should contain a minimum of specialized language.

Style, organization, and format. Scholarly presentation of the material is the responsibility of the author(s). Organize material in a logical sequence, incorporate sub-headings, and, in the case of research or theoretical articles, give enough details of techniques so that other readers can clearly understand the authors ideas or execution of the research. Avoid repetition of ideas in the paper.

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- Type double-spaced on one side of the paper.
- Limit the length of manuscripts as indicated in the criteria for each section.

Citations. Citations in the body of the article should be by authors surname, date, and pages cited when reference is made to the work of others either by a direct or indirect quotation. The following examples illustrate the required format.

> Campbell and MacFadyen (1984) cautioned....Fetterman (1984) stated: The inventory.... (p. 18)
> Research (Buskirk, 1981; Serfass, 1982) indicates....

Where reference is made to an article by more than two authors, the first time it appears all names must be listed. In any further reference, use the first listed author and et al. For example:

> First reference: Bob, Pringle, and Rijan (1969) reported that....; in any
> further reference use the format: Bob et al. (1969) favor diets....

References

All work cited in the paper must be given in a list of references at the end of the paper. Works that are not cited should not be listed. References are typed on a separate page, double-spaced throughout, alphabetized by first authors surname with paragraph indentation used for the second and successive lines. Several references by the same author are arranged by year of publication. The following examples illustrate APA style. (Note the use of lower case in the titles.)

- **Book**
  Fremes, R., & Sabry, Z. (1981). NutriScore: The rate yourself plan for better nutrition. Toronto: Methuen.
- **Journal article** (do not abbreviate journal names). Nostedt, E.M. (1984). Networking. *Canadian Home Economics Journal, 34*(3), 130-132.
- **Article or chapter in an edited book**
  Gurman, A.S., & Kniskern, D.P. (1981). Family therapy outcome research: Knowns and unknowns. In A.S. Gurman & D.P. Kniskern (Eds.), *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 742-775). New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- **Government report**
  Bureau of Nutrition Research. (1983). *Recommended nutrient intakes for Canadians* (4th ed.). Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada.

Tables

Tables should be kept to a minimum and used only when they add value to the paper. Type each table on a separate page, double-spaced with the complete title at the top of the sheet. Limit the number of characters across the table 40, 60 or 87, and organize the table to make efficient use of the space. Give each table a number and refer to it by that number in the text. Indicate the location of tables as follows:

(Insert Table 1)

There should be no vertical or horizontal lines except those in the heading and at the bottom of the table.

Figures

Figures, including graphs, pictures, line drawings, and flow charts should be included if they will improve clarity, add reader appeal, and are discussed in the text. Graphs and line drawings must be professionally prepared (one per page) in India ink with a mechanical lettering device. The original art work (or a glossy photograph of the original) must be submitted for publication. Authors should note that the use of a typewriter to produce the lettering is not acceptable.

Each item should have a clear heading and be numbered (e.g., Figure 1). Placement in the text should be indicated on the manuscript.

Photographs, when submitted, should be good clear prints. Do not write on the front or back and do not attach them to other materials with paper clips or staples. Attach a sheet that includes the caption to the back of the picture with tape.

In preparing graphics it is good practice to prepare them twice the size that will be shown in the text. Lettering should be done using 12- or 14-point characters. Remember that they must then be reduced to fit within the dimensions of the column or page. The finished width in the Journal will be 55, 85, or 180 mm.

Additional Information

Authors should consult the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.) for complete information.

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Copies of research papers will be sent to two or more qualified referees. Within six weeks the author should receive a summary of the referees decisions, comments, and suggestions. Referees may recommend acceptance, minor changes, major revisions, or rejection of the paper. If the author agrees with the reviewers comments, a second draft, incorporating suggested changes should be prepared. If the author does not agree with the suggested changes, justification for that stand may be provided. The paper will be published as soon as possible after it is accepted. Copyright and licence-to-use forms are sent when the paper is accepted.

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Four copies of papers intended for the research (refereed) section should be submitted to:

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301 Printing Services Building
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2N1

Three copies of a manuscript intended for the general interest sections should be submitted to:

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Lethbridge Community College
3000 College Drive S.
Lethbridge, Alberta
T1K 1L6

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Informations pour la soumission des textes

Pour ce qui est de la section des articles d'intérêt général, **trois** copies du texte propos doivent être expédiées :

Carmelle Therien-Viau
C.P. 192
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ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE
CANADIAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION

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Ellen Boynton, directrice génénerale
Association canadienne d'économie familiale
151, rue Slater bureau 901
Ottawa (Ontario) K1P 5H3
Téléphone : (613) 238-8817
Télécopieur : (613) 238-1677

Date limite de réception des candidatures : 1er juin 1992 (entrevues au début de juin)

CANADIAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION
ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE

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Please direct applications and inquiries to:

Ellen Boynton, Executive Director
Canadian Home Economics Association
901 – 151 Slater Street
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Tel: (613) 238-8817
Fax: (613) 238-1677

Deadline for receipt of applications: June 1, 1992 (suggest early June interviews)

Mark your calendars for these upcoming conferences:

1992	April 4	OHEA	Toronto, Ontario	*Here We Go, Watch Us Grow* *Expanding the Horizon of Home Economists*
1992	June 28-July 2	AHEA	Denver, Colorado	*Options and Opportunities*
1992	July 12-15	CHEA	Saskatoon, Saskatchewan	*Breaking the Barrier* *Social and Global Space*
1992	July 26-31	IFHE Congress	Hanover, Germany	*Focussing on Families and Households:* *Change and Exchange*
1992	September 16-19	American Assoc. of Housing Educators	Winnipeg, Manitoba	*Housing Perspectives in North America :* *Sharing and Learning Together*
1993	July 11-14	CHEA	Windsor, Ontario	*Families in Motion*

Home Economics is concerned with all aspects of daily living including human relationships and development, resource management, consumerism, foods and nutrition, clothing and textiles, housing and aesthetics. Home Economics brings together knowledge from its own research, the sciences and the arts and uses this knowledge to assist people in enhancing their daily lives.

CODE OF ETHICS

As a home economist and as a member of the Canadian Home Economics Association, I pledge to prac tise home economics to the best of my abilities and to:

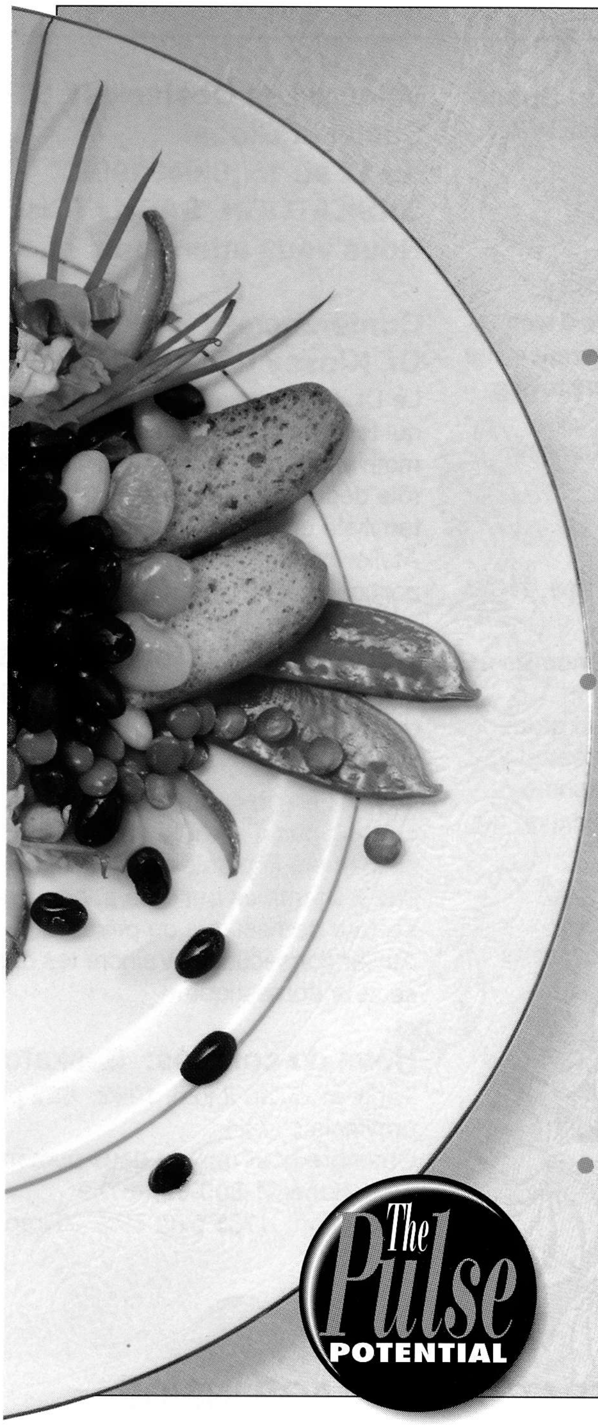
1. Uphold the mission of home economics to enhance the quality of daily life for individuals and families.
2. Support the Association and further its aims.
3. Discharge my professional duties with integrity.
4. Strive to provide the best service available and only that service for which qualifications are possessed.
5. Inform the public and employer of possible consequences of services, products and policies which may impact the well being of individuals and families.
6. Strive to make judgments and recommend solutions in a rational, must and unbiased manner in such matters as confidentiality and conflict of interst.
7. Strive to protect the public in the event of unethical or incompetent behaviour of colleagues and fellow family professionals.
8. Strive to be cooperative and equalitarian in approach to clientele and colleagues.
9. Maintain high standrds of professional practice through continuing education, critique and reflection of professional experience, and participation in dialogue with the professional community.
10. Reflect critically on optimum conditions for human health and well being.
11. Conduct myself at all times so that no dishonor befalls individual members or the profession.

L'Économie Familiale touche tous les aspects de la v ie quotidienne, dont les relations humaines et l'épanouissement de la personne, la gestion des ressources, l'économie de la consommation, les aliments et la nutrition, l'habillement et les textiles, l'habitat et l'esthéthique. L'économie familiale regroupe un ensemble de connaissances issues desses propres travaux de recherche, des sciences et des arts en vue d'aider la population dans la vie de tous les jours.

CODE DE DÉONTOLOGIE

En qualité d'économiste familiale et de membre de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, je m'engage à pratiquer l'économie familiale aux mieux de mes compétences et à :

1. Appuyer la mission de l'économie familiale, qui consiste à améliorer la qualité de la vie quotidienne des personnes et des familles.
2. Soutenir l'Association et poursuivre les buts qu'elle s'est fixés.
3. Assumer mes responsabilités professionnelles avec intégrité.
4. Mefforcer de fournir les meilleurs services possibles, et seulement les services pour lesquels je suis qualifiée.
5. Informer le public et mon employeur des effets possiles des services, des produits et des politiques pouvant influer sur le bien-être des personnes et des familles.
6. M'efforcer de porter des jugements et de recommander des solutions de façon rationnelle, juste et impartiale quand il est question de confidentialité et de conflits d'intérêt.
7. M'efforcer de protéger le public si des collègues et des professionnels de ma spécialitéfont preuve d'incompétence ou manquent à la déontologie.
8. M'efforcer de traiter la clientèle et mes collègues dans un esprit d'équité et de coopération.
9. Garder des normes élevées de pratique professionnelle grâce à la formation permanente, à une réflexion objective touchant l'expérience professionnelle, et au dialogue dans mon milieu professionnel.
10. Réfléchir objectivement sur les conditions optimales nécessaires à la santé et au bien-être des personnes.
12. Me conduire de façon à ne jamais jeter le discrédit sur des membres de la profession ou sur la profession même.



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Dr. Patricia Thompson, Lehman College, New York

Dr. Thompson will present a case for Home Economics as a precursor to a feminist philosophy that does not capitulate to a masculine definition, but is instead grounded in the "space" or "life world" that women have created and traditionally occupied - the domestic or private sphere.
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Atelier consécutif: Vaincre les obstacles: Agir sur la politique gouvernementale.

Conférencière Edith Rowles Simpson:
Dr. Patricia Thompson, College Lehman, New York

Le Dr. Thompson montrera que l'économie familiale aggisait en précurseur avant même le féminisme qui ne capitule pas devant le monde masculin, mais qu'elle est solidement implantée dan l'"espace" ou le "cadre de vie" que les femmes ont créé et occupent traditionnellement - le secteur domestique ou privé.
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